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ABSTRACT

In December 2003, The Finance Project staff published and disseminated a paper that synthesizes the delivery and financing of professional development in education and gives an objective summary of the various debates in the field. This paper outlines the current status of both pre-service and in-service professional development for teachers, principals, and superintendents, including requirements for licensure, alternative routes to licensure, delivery of in-service professional development, and the difficult questions surrounding measuring effectiveness. The purpose of this guide is to provide information to those who are called upon to make decisions that affect training and professional development in education but who do not necessarily have a complete understanding of how the process currently operates and the debates in which the field is currently engaged. (Author)

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THE DELIVERY, FINANCING, AND ASSESSMENT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION: PRE-SERVICE PREPARATION AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING

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PREFACE

This paper is part of a series of profiles of professional development across disciplines developed as part of The Finance Project's Collaborative Initiative on Financing Professional Development in Education. These profiles are designed to provide examples along two trajectories—one examining training for the front-line work force and the other examining training for supervisory and management positions—to illustrate the ways in which the requirements, delivery, and financing of training and professional development in other professions differ from those in education. The purpose of examining these differences is to offer new insights into the financing of professional development programs, to highlight the need for improvement in professional development in the education field, and to provide a catalyst to develop innovative solutions to meet those needs. The full series will be published as a volume that includes this paper as well as a comparative analysis, synthesizing the analogies to consider how they might help to improve professional development in education.

While initially conceptualized as a profile of professional development in education to provide a basis of comparison for the profiles in other fields, it became clear in drafting this paper that it would shortchange the reader not to include a synopsis of the context in which professional development is delivered and financed in education. As a result, the paper has grown to include a description of the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act related to professional development as well as some history on the debate over standards for entry into the profession and an examination of how the effectiveness of professional development has been assessed.

The context in which professional development is delivered and financed has changed significantly in the last few years, but while changes have begun to take place in various states, districts, and universities, there remains a disjuncture between discussions in policy and research circles and what is actually taking place in the field. As a result, this paper reflects that disjuncture, as the first half addresses recent changes and debates, while the second half describes the status quo of what is being required of and offered to teachers, principals, and superintendents. One of the goals of the Initiative is to facilitate communication and exchanges of information among the research, policy, and practitioner arenas to bring those often isolated worlds closer together in reaching their common goals, and it is hoped that this paper provides a step in that direction.

While the status quo of how professional development is delivered around the country and efforts to measure its effectiveness can give a bleak picture when taken as a whole, this paper is in no way intended to condemn what all school systems are doing. To be sure, there are a significant number of districts, schools, and individuals who are "doing it right"; and recent reports by the Council of Great City Schools, the Learning First Alliance, and Consortium for Policy Research in Education include impressive examples. The focus of The Finance Project's work in this area will be to highlight promising practices and how they are financed, in order to provide models to others who need information to make positive changes.

Cheryl D. Hayes

Cheryl D. Hayes
Executive Director

BY KATHERINE S. NEVILLE AND CASEY J. ROBINSON

INTRODUCTION

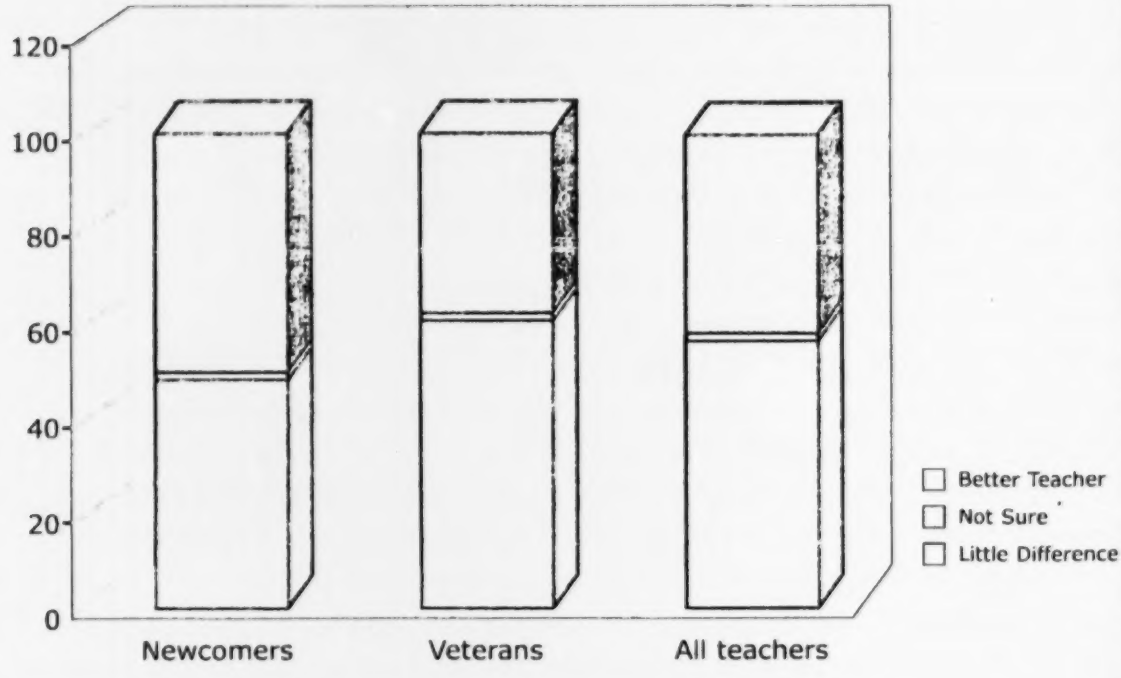
Professional development—including both pre-service and in-service training—is a critical component of the nation's effort to improve schools and student achievement. Key to ensuring that teachers, principals, and other educators have the knowledge and skills they need to meet the challenges of today's classrooms is ensuring that they have access to sustained, intensive professional development. The financing of professional development directly affects what professional development takes place, how it is made available, who participates, who pays, and what impacts it has. Improving professional development in education therefore depends on better information about how cost-effective those investments are. With the goal of concisely synthesizing a range of information not otherwise accessible in one place and disseminating it to the field, this paper will examine what pre-service and in-service professional development is required and how it is delivered, financed, and assessed for teachers as well as principals and superintendents.

Traditionally, pre-service and in-service professional development have existed as separate and often unrelated phases in an educator's career. Pre-service professional development is provided overwhelmingly by universities, which prepare teachers in content knowledge and pedagogy and offer some classroom experience. The majority of prospective teachers take their education classes and student teach as part of an undergraduate program or through a master's program in education or teaching. Teacher candidates who hold a bachelor's degree can choose to fulfill a state's licensure requirements without earning the

master's degree by completing the coursework required by that particular state for a teaching license. Recently, teacher education programs have come under increasing attack for not adequately preparing teachers with the knowledge and skills to succeed in the classroom. Some programs are criticized for not providing sufficient instruction in content areas or enough opportunities to link coursework with clinical experience. In response, some universities are providing more intensive clinical experiences and revisiting their curricula, but many states have designed alternative routes to certification that minimize the role of colleges and universities in preparing teachers.

In-service professional development is usually required of educators to fulfill specific district or state requirements or to renew certification. The time allowed for district professional development ranges from a number of negotiated days in a contract to planning time that may be used for professional development during the school day. The purpose of required in-service programs ranges from making educators aware of new state or district standards and requirements to disseminating new curricula or specific instructional techniques, to apprising teachers of local-level reform efforts. The formats and duration of in-service professional development also vary. Some programs are brief or day-long lecture-based events that happen once, while other opportunities may operate on an interval schedule over a longer period of time. Programs also differ as to whether they use a lecture format or collaborative group activities and "hands-on" learning opportunities that emphasize the importance of participants constructing their own knowledge and adapting techniques for their own classroom.

Did the Professional Development that You Had Make You a Better Teacher?



Source: Farkas, S., Johnson, J. Duffett, A. with Moye, L. and Vine J. (2003). *Stand By Me: What Teachers Really Think About Unions, Merit Pay, and Other Professional Matters.* Public Agenda, p. 43.

Other than district-required professional development, once in the classroom many of the in-service professional development opportunities that teachers participate in are self-selected. Teacher-selected professional development includes attending conferences and workshops, as well as courses and master's degrees offered by universities that advance teachers on the salary scale, meet state licensing requirements, and allow teachers to obtain additional certifications. These opportunities are all considered in-service professional development and are offered by an array of providers, including states, districts, universities, and private companies. Principals and superintendents also take additional courses at universities and attend conferences and workshops to increase their own professional growth and, in some cases, to meet state requirements. However, there are fewer options available for principal and superintendent professional development, in part because there are approximately 14,000 superintendents and 100,000 principals compared to 3.5 million teachers nationally, and in part because of the historic lack of focus by districts and states on this area.[1] This focus has grown recently as school and district leadership has become an increasingly substantial component of education reform discussions, including recent statements by national foundations and education associations identifying this area as a priority. Mounting concern about the effectiveness of professional development for teachers at both the pre-service and in-service levels has led to increased scrutiny and gradual changes in the field. Many researchers, policy makers, and educators have discussed appropriate professional development as a potentially forceful lever for improving student achievement, and it is increasingly viewed as a critical tool for deepening teachers' content knowledge and developing their teaching practices.[2] A number of those researchers, policy makers and educators, however, also consider the status quo of some professional development in many districts around the country to be a waste of time and money.

In a number of districts and states the isolation in which professional development decisions are made is demonstrated by the lack of alignment between the standards on which students will be tested, the curriculum taught in the classroom, and professional development for teachers. If teachers are not trained to teach the material that students will be tested on, students do not have an opportunity to achieve.

The research and policy communities generally advocate the critical importance of professional development in improving standards-based instruction and ultimately student achievement. Professional development is how teachers "can hone their skills, improve practice, and keep current with changes in knowledge, technology, and the society they serve."[3] Many teachers in the field, however, do not consider the professional development they are required to participate in to be valuable or relevant to their own classrooms. A survey of teachers conducted by Public Agenda in 2003 found that 50 percent of those surveyed reported that the professional development they participate in makes little difference for them as teachers.[4] Since they have more latitude to choose what types of professional development they participate in, principals and superintendents are able to only select activities they consider

[1] National Staff Development Council. (2000). *Learning to Lead, Leading to Learn: Improving School Quality Through Principal Professional Development*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council. p. 2 and http://www.aasa.org/about/index.htm.

[2] Desimone, L. et al. (2002). Effects of Professional Development on Teachers' Instruction: Results from a Three-Year Longitudinal Study," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 24 (2)*.

[3] Renyi, Judith. (1996). *Teachers Take Charge of Their Learning: Transforming Professional Development for Student Success*. Washington, D.C.: National Foundation for the Improvement of Education.

[4] Farkas, S., Johnson, J. Duffett, A., with Moye, L. and Vine, J. (2003). *Stand By Me: What Teachers Really Think About Unions, Merit Pay, and Other Professional Matters*. Public Agendas p. 43.

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valuable for themselves; but as mentioned above, their choices as well as budgets are quite limited.

Perhaps explaining this dichotomy between the views of research and policy communities on the one hand and practicing teachers on the other hand, the majority of school districts and universities in the country do not provide the kind of professional development that has the capacity to bring about change. While many existing professional development opportunities are valuable in building teacher capacity, many others impart knowledge that is unrelated to the actual practice of teaching. These activities are frequently short in duration, unrelated to individual classrooms, unconnected with the work of colleagues, and regarded by many teachers, administrators, and policy makers as unproductive.

In addition, various offerings often continue to be isolated from one another and often from state- or district-based reform efforts. Researchers have found that this fragmentation is compounded by a lack of information and poor communication about best practices.[5] School districts nave the latitude to "vote with their feet," selecting amongst various professional development activities, but they often do so without a strategic analysis of the district's needs or full information about the best options available to them.

As a result of recent heightened scrutiny of pre-service and in-service professional development, changes to the form, content, and duration of professional development requirements and activities are taking place at the federal, state, district, and university level, but this movement is still in its fledgling stage. Districts, states, and universities that do buy in to the idea that changes in professional development can help raise student achievement and reach school and district goals continue to find that making large-scale shifts in programs and financing is a significant challenge. Most universities continue to prepare teachers in the traditional fashion, and many states and districts continue to require teachers to participate in in-service professional development that is often unrelated to building instructional capacity.

To provide a full picture of professional development in education, this paper will first describe the context in which professional development is being delivered and financed, including the relevant requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act, the debate over standards for entry into the profession, and how the effectiveness of professional development is assessed. The paper will then examine the status quo of a) requirements for licensure and pre-service professional development; b) both required and optional in-service professional development; c) how these activities are financed.

The context in which professional development is delivered and financed has changed significantly in the last few years; and while corresponding changes have begun to take place in various states, districts, and universities, there remains a disjuncture between discussions in policy and research circles and what is taking place in the field. As a result, this paper reflects that disjuncture, as the first half addresses recent changes and debates and the second half describes the status quo of what is being required of and offered to teachers, principals, and superintendents.

[5] Kronley, R. and Handley, C. (2001). *Framing the Field: Professional Development in Context.* Washington, D.C.: The Finance Project. p. 4.

THE CONTEXT IN WHICH PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS DELIVERED AND FINANCED

NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), passed in 2002, was a sweeping piece of legislation that addressed many aspects of elementary and secondary education, and teacher quality was a central feature of the law. The requirements of the Act and its regulations are specific and have had an immediate impact on both pre-service and in-service professional development in education. The law requires that states place "highly qualified" teachers in every public school classroom by 2005 and defines "highly qualified" teachers as those who hold a bachelor's degree from a four-year college, have full state licensure, and demonstrate competence in the subject they teach.[6] Elementary school teachers must demonstrate knowledge of the general elementary school curriculum, and secondary teachers must demonstrate subject matter knowledge in each of the subjects they teach. The federal government's NCLB regulations allow teachers participating in alternate route certification programs to be highly qualified only if they "assume functions as regular classroom teachers and are making satisfactory progress toward full certification, as prescribed by the state and the program."[7] Under the Act, states remain responsible for all licensure requirements and for determining how teachers will demonstrate competence in their subject area(s).

[6] Elementary and Secondary Education Act. (2001). Washington, D.C. Section 1119 (a)(2)(A), Section 9101.

[7] No Child Left Behind Compliance Insider. "Teachers with Alternate Certifications." New York, NY: Brownstone Publishers Inc. p. 7.

In addition to the highly qualified teacher provisions, the NCLB Act requires states to annually increase the percentage of teachers receiving high-quality professional development. The Act lists 15 characteristics of high quality professional development, that:

1) Improves and increases teachers' knowledge of the academic subjects that the teachers teach, and enables teachers to become highly qualified;
2) Is not completed at a one-day or short-term workshops or conferences;
3) Is developed with the extensive participation of teachers, principals, parents, and administrators of schools to be served under this Act;
4) Includes instruction in the use of data and assessments to inform and instruct classroom practice; and
5) Gives teachers, principals, and administrators the knowledge and skills to provide students with the opportunity to meet challenging State academic content standards and student academic achievement standards.[8]

In addition, the Act also notes that the high quality activities include partnerships with higher education institutions that establish school-based teacher training programs, programs that enable paraprofessionals to become licensed teachers, and programs that involve the follow-up of previous professional development activities to ensure that the knowledge and skills learned by the teachers are implemented in the classroom.

Apart from the changes brought about by the NCLB, the Higher Education Act is expected to be reauthorized by Congress in 2004, and there are provisions in that bill which could impact teacher preparation programs. Suggested provisions so far include holding teacher-training programs accountable for the teachers they produce and ensuring that they possess the necessary skills to be highly qualified and ready to teach when they enter the classroom.[9]

DEBATE OVER STANDARDS FOR ENTRY INTO THE PROFESSION

The high demand and relatively low supply of individuals who meet the NCLB requirements, particularly in high-need areas such as special education, math, and science, has generated a high-level and complicated debate concerning the focus and direction of pre-service training.[10] According to the Secretary's Second Annual Report on Teacher Quality, only 54 percent of secondary school teachers were highly qualified in 1999-2000. In English, half of secondary school teachers were licensed, and only 47 percent of math teachers were licensed. Science and social studies were slightly better, with 55 percent of teachers licensed.[11]

The goal of all parties engaged in the debate is to improve the performance of teachers in the classroom and student outcomes. Those of differing views on how to accomplish the goal agree that they do not want candidates to become teachers solely based on "seat time" completion of a certain number of courses. Some proponents of change want to circumvent schools of education to open the teaching field to those without traditional education training. Other advocates want to improve the caliber of preparation and training provided by schools of education. The issues at the heart of the debate require state-by-state action, as states still control the licensing process that the federal government deferred to in the mandates of the NCLB.

[8] Elementary and Secondary Education Act. (2001). Washington, D.C. Section 1119 (a)(2)(B), Section 9101 (34)(a).

[9] *Policymakers* (July 2003). Washington, D.C. Alliance for Excellent Education newsletter.

[10] Rotherham, A. and Mead, S. (2003). "Teacher Quality: Beyond No Child Left Behind: A Response to Kaplan and Owings (2002)." *NASSP Bulletin*. July 28, 2003.

[11] U.S. Department of Education. (2003). "Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge: The Secretary's Second Annual Report on Teacher Quality." Washington, D.C.: Department of Education. p. 7.

The debate includes several organizations that argue reducing barriers to licensure and increasing alternative routes to teaching will alleviate school districts' struggle to hire "high quality" educators. As the Fordham Foundation describes it: "Individuals who know their subject matter well, know how to convey it to children, and have sound character should be eligible to teach in our schools, whether or not they have racked up certain courses on their ed school transcripts."[12] To address the issue, the National Council on Teacher Quality proposes "opening entry into the profession and allowing schools to select from a wide range of candidates with different backgrounds and training, then holding both teachers and schools accountable for producing results."[13] Some of these organizations have come together to create a model based on this philosophy called the American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE), an alternative certification program that reduces some of the barriers to entry into the teaching profession. This program and other similar initiatives will be discussed in greater detail in the following pages.

Critics submit that these proposed changes are in effect lowering standards for teachers and will only result in poor educational outcomes for students. They also argue that teachers who enter the field through alternative certification may have enough knowledge of a subject to pass an entrance exam, but that these candidates are not assessed on their ability to teach the information to students and lack the pedagogical training that will make them effective teachers. Advocating a different approach to change, several organizations have made an effort to reform the teacher preparation and licensure process by developing a set of standards for all teachers to meet that are "substantively connected and represent a continuum of development along a teacher's career path."[14] The first group to do so was the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), founded in 1987. NBPTS outlined a set of standards representing what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do, and teachers must demonstrate that they meet these standards in their classroom in order to achieve National Board Certification.

The articulation of standards by NBPTS was closely followed by the creation of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) in 1987. INTASC is a consortium of state education agencies promoting reform for teachers through the development of licensing standards. The set of performance standards developed by INTASC and currently used in its 34-member states describes the knowledge, skills, abilities, and dispositions needed by beginning teachers. The professional accrediting body for teacher education programs, NCATE, discussed below, incorporates the INTASC performance standards for teachers into their standards for accreditation.

While the frameworks for implementing a performance-based licensure system exist, only a few states have successfully incorporated the standards and implemented such a system. In 2001-2002, nine states used performance assessments involving an evaluator from outside the school to make licensure decisions.[15] In these cases, states grant initial licenses and then require beginning teachers to pass a performance-based assessment to qualify for a professional license. Both Connecticut and North Carolina use assessments that require videotapes of classroom instruction, written reflections, and student

[12] http://www.edexcellence.net/topics/teachers.html.

[13] http://www.nctq.org/about.html.

[14] Mitchell, K. Robinson, D. Plake, B. Knowles, K. (2001). *Testing Teacher Candidates: The Role of Licensure Tests in Improving Teacher Quality*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press. p. 24.

[15] Youngs, P. Odden, A. and Porter, A. (2003). State Policy Related to Teacher Licensure. Educational Policy 17(2) p. 220.

work samples, and Connecticut's system is closely aligned with INTASC standards. Arkansas uses the PRAXIS III, developed by ETS, to assess beginning teachers. PRAXIS III requires the teacher to be assessed by an outside evaluator at least twice during the candidate's first year of teaching. Other states, including Kentucky, Louisiana, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Washington, use state-developed performance evaluations. These systems vary but typically include assessment of teacher abilities by a team of evaluators, which always includes someone from outside the school but may also include the candidate's principal.[16]

Those involved in designing these three aligned sets of standards—INTASC, NCATE, and NBPTS—believe that they have the potential to change the core of teacher preparation and licensure because they focus on the performance of the teacher rather than on the completion of a certain number of courses in a set amount of time. While they may have potential, critics note that these standards have not had an immediate and consistent impact on the teaching profession. Although some states have adopted performance-based assessments for making licensure decisions, the vast majority of states still rely on licensure criteria that focus on taking a certain number of classes. In addition, many states that have piloted INTASC standards choose not to fully implement a performance-based system because of the costs and the difficulties that sometimes arise in providing evidence of validity, reliability, and fairness.[17] Further, critics point out that while performance-based standards are attractive in theory, there is little research that indicates that state implementation of these standards has an impact on student achievement.

All participants engaged in the debate might agree that if performance standards tied to student learning were used universally so that all teacher candidates were evaluated against the same criteria, it would allow for a variety of different routes to teacher preparation. Some prospective teachers would choose a traditional four-year bachelor's program, while others might choose to participate in an alternative licensure program, but all would be judged against the same standards.

ASSESSING WHAT IS "EFFECTIVE" PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In part because of the range of providers and requirements and the lack of coherence of professional development programs, the question of effectiveness has not always been an integral part of decisions about what opportunities to offer or require. Answering the basic question of "What are you trying to accomplish?" is helpful in thinking about how to measure effectiveness. Once goals have been established, then measures can be identified to determine how well any particular professional development has met those goals. Those measures can be inputs such as materials, technology, or staff; they can be outputs such as activities or participation; or they can be outcomes such as what happens as a result of the program.[18]

[16] Ibid. pp. 225-228.

[17] Ibid. p. 229.

[18] Based on the work of Taylor-Powell, E. (1998). *The Logic Model: A Program Performance Framework.* University of Wisconsin-Extension.

ASSESSING IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The fundamental goal of in-service professional development for educators has widely been identified as "improving student learning through the improvement of teacher learning."[19] In education, the measures used to determine how well professional development is meeting that goal—i.e., how effective it is—have traditionally been discussed in terms of analyzing the inputs and outputs of the opportunities available to teachers but not the outcome of improved student learning. While some studies include surveys of teacher participants who self-report the changes they have made in the classroom as a result of a particular professional development experience—arguably an outcome—even this type of evaluation is rare, and may be unreliable.

As Thomas Guskey pointed out in a 2003 *Phi Delta Kappan* article, while the field has evaluated both inputs and outputs for professional development programs, "significant advances in professional development will come only when both researchers and practitioners insist on [improvements in student learning outcomes] as the principal criterion of effectiveness."[20] This proves to be a considerable challenge. Measuring how effectively professional development meets the ultimate goal of improved student achievement is difficult because of the number of variables involved. The links, not to mention causal relationships, are difficult to prove. There are a number of factors involved in student outcomes. Linking a student's achievement to a course which his or her teacher may have taken or to a district-wide initiative to support more time for teacher planning and learning is considered by many to be a stretch.

Measuring the effectiveness of a professional development experience is further complicated by the lack of consensus in the field about what constitutes an effective teacher. With the push for increased standards and the accompanying efforts to link student performance and teacher education, researchers have been studying characteristics of teachers that have an impact on student achievement. Some studies conclude that teacher characteristics which have a positive impact on student performance include: (1) the amount of coursework that a teacher undertakes in a relevant subject area (only demonstrated in math and science); and (2) the teacher's scores on verbal and math skills tests. However, these studies show that other measures of teaching skills, such as education courses completed, advanced education degrees—regardless of whether they are in the subject the individual is teaching, or scores on professional knowledge sections of licensure exams do not have a clear relationship with student achievement.[21]

A recently published article reviews a range of studies and finds that contrary to the research cited above, there is evidence suggesting that teachers who have earned advanced degrees have a positive impact on high school mathematics and science achievement when the degrees earned were in these subjects. Additionally, the report concludes that teacher coursework in both the subject area taught and in pedagogy contributes to positive education outcomes. More specifically, the author points to evidence which demonstrates that pedagogical coursework seems to contribute to teacher effectiveness at all grade levels, particularly when coupled with content knowledge.[22] As the mixed research findings reflect, there is no consensus on the characteristics of an effective teacher within the field. That lack of consensus makes it even more difficult to determine what professional development will help create effective teachers.

[19] Hawley, W. and Rellec, D. (2002). *The Keys to Effective Schools*. Corwin Press. p. 87.
[20] Guskey, T. (2003). "What Makes Professional Development Effective?" *Phi Delta Kappan*. 84(10), p. 750.
[21] Haycock, K. (1998). "Good Teaching Matters... A Lot." Washington, D.C.: The Education Trust. p. 6.
[22] Rice, J.K. (2003). "Understanding the Effectiveness of Teacher Attributes." Washington, D.C.: Economic Policy Institute.

As a result of the difficulty in linking professional development with student achievement, many researchers and educators instead propose measuring short- or medium-range outcomes, such as increasing teacher knowledge and capacity, building professional learning communities, retaining teachers, and improving classroom practice. Critics respond that, without looking at effects on student achievement, measuring only these interim outcomes would allow for a positive evaluation of programs that changed teachers' practice or retained teachers but that did not raise student achievement.

While policy makers and researchers have articulated and, in some cases, emphasized the need for evaluations of professional development linked to student outcomes, the fact remains that professional development has rarely been evaluated by its impact on long-term outcomes of whether or not it improved student achievement. One of the few studies that did make the link in the field examined math reform in California. In that study, researchers Cohen and Hill found that, in cases where teachers had significant opportunities to learn how to improve mathematics teaching and to study student materials and assessments, elementary school students posted higher scores on the state assessment.[23]

Data management issues exacerbate the challenge of tenuous links between professional development and student achievement as many states, districts, and schools do not collect data in a manner that makes these links possible. Some states, such as Tennessee and Florida, now collect "value-added" data on individual students and teachers in such a way that student scores can be matched to the specific teachers whom the students had in the classroom. To gauge the effect of a teacher, the Tennessee system aggregates achievement data from the teacher's students over three years and then compares the gains which the teacher's students make from year to year against the gains made by a national sample of students, as well as state and district gains.[24]

Currently, because schools and districts do not collect data on the effectiveness and efficiency of their professional development investments, they lack the necessary information to make the most efficient choice when deciding what professional development to offer or require.

The feasibility of connecting professional development experiences with student achievement relies in part on the creation of these kinds of data systems. Currently, because schools and districts do not collect data on the effectiveness and efficiency of their professional development investments, they lack the necessary information to make the most efficient choice when deciding what professional development to offer or require. As discussed further in the financing sections, this is a critical obstacle to determining the cost-effectiveness of professional development. For example, the reimbursement for masters degrees and the resulting salary increases are a major expense for districts, yet there is little evidence that this common form of professional development has an impact on student achievement or even teacher practice.

[23] Cohen, D. and Hill, H. (2001). *Learning Policy: When State Education Reform Works*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press. pp. 2-3.
[24] Robelen, E. "Tennessee Seeks to Use Student Tests to Show Teacher Quality." *Education Week*. May 27, 2003. p. 27.

ASSESSING PRE-SERVICE PREPARATION

In many fields, effectiveness of preparation programs can be gauged at least to some degree by the accrediting body in the field. There are multiple accreditation bodies for schools of education, and each one has a different set of standards for assessing the quality of teacher education institutions and/or licensure programs. States depend heavily on colleges and universities to train teachers in reaching basic requirements. The lack of an agreed-upon set of standards or body of knowledge that all teachers must be able to meet and know, however, means that the difference in state licensure requirements is not ameliorated by a national accrediting body. Part of the difficulty in reaching a consensus on what is effective professional development is a lack of strong evidence. In response to this, the U.S. Department of Education initiated a teacher-quality research program.[25]

All 50 states and the District of Columbia have adopted standards for approval of teacher education programs. Most states use one of or a combination of the following to approve programs:

(1) state standards,
(2) regional accrediting association standards,
(3) National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) standards, or
(4) National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) standards.

An alternative accrediting organization, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), has recently become an additional accrediting organization, but as of 2002–2003 no states are using TEAC standards to approve teacher education programs.

Approximately half of the states use regional accrediting standards such as the Middle States Commission on Higher Education and the Western Association of Schools and Colleges. Thirty-five states use NCATE standards for determining approval for a program, with far fewer states (18) incorporating NASDTEC content standards. While there are discrepancies amongst all the standards, having 35 states adopt or adapt the NCATE standards indicates some movement in the direction of more uniform standards. In addition, 46 states work in partnership with NCATE to conduct concurrent or joint reviews of institutions to streamline the process.

Schools of education could potentially be rated based on their national accreditation status, but many well-regarded schools of education decide not to participate in the NCATE process. It has been suggested that these schools may choose not to participate because they already have a highly selective admissions process and do not feel that the benefits of NCATE accreditation outweigh the extensive paperwork that is involved in the process. As of 2003, 500 programs have NCATE accreditation, and another 100 programs are in the process of applying for accreditation. TEAC has accredited five institutions.

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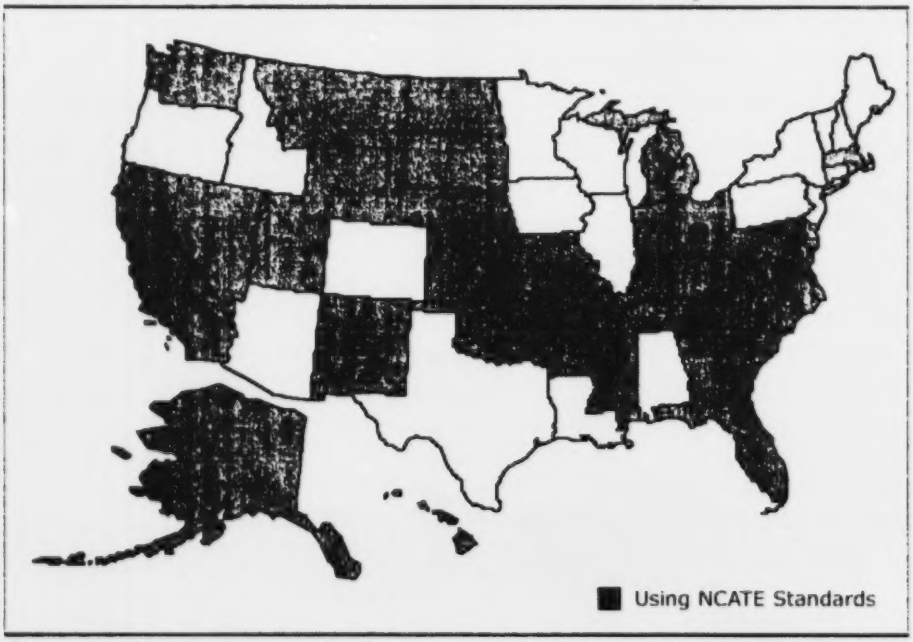
[25] http://www.ed.gov/programs/edresearch/index.html.

Accreditation does not necessarily equal effectiveness but can rather be viewed as an accountability measure: the program is accountable for having met the threshold standards for accreditation. There remains a question about whether those standards are aligned with making a preparation program effective in getting teachers into schools, having them stay there, and having them be effective while they are there.

A recent summary of research related to teacher preparation compiled by the Education Commission of the States (ECS) found that the research is inconclusive about the effectiveness of accreditation of teacher preparation programs. This is due in part to the limited number of studies—three—on the subject.[26] The National Research Council recently released a report on several validity studies that have been conducted of the tests that candidates must take in order to become teachers and whether these tests are valid predictors of the success of the teacher.[27] Similar validity studies have yet to be conducted on teacher preparation programs, and there is still no research available to compare the impact of NCATE to the impact of TEAC or other state accreditation processes.[28]

STATES USING NCATE STANDARDS OR EQUIVALENT



Source: The NASDTEC Manual on the Preparation and Certification of Educational Personnel 2002, Sacramento, California.

Another potential means to measure effectiveness could be holding teacher-training programs accountable for the product they produce. Since there is no exam that all prospective teachers must take, in 2002, 24 states held teacher-training programs accountable by publishing and rating them according to the pass rates or rankings of graduates on the various state licensing exams which their graduates took. Thirty-six states

[26] Education Commission of the States. (2003). "Eight Questions on Teacher Preparation: What Does the Research Say? A Summary of the Findings." Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. p. 6.
[27] National Research Council. (2001). *Testing Teacher Candidates*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
[28] Education Commission of the States. (2003). p. 6.

chose to hold teacher-training programs accountable by identifying low-performing programs. Many states have been accused of "gaming the system", however, requiring that each of their students pass a state licensing examination in order to graduate, producing a 100 percent pass rate.[29]

Recently, a handful of states, including Kentucky, South Carolina, Oklahoma, Mississippi, Washington, and Alabama, have implemented systems that measure the quality of a teacher preparation program based on the performance of graduates in the classroom.[30] Oklahoma has set up a warranty program for teacher education graduates. If beginning teachers trained by state institutions do not meet the 15 expectations/standards adopted by the state for new teachers during their first year, the teacher will receive additional training from the preparation program at no cost to the teacher or the school district, so long as the teacher is teaching at grade level and in his or her licensed field. Similarly, Mississippi requires that teacher preparation programs provide additional training during the first two years of teaching for any graduate whom the school district and university liaison to the school district agree needs extra help.[31]

These requirements have been initial attempts by states to directly tie graduate performance in the classroom to the school of education where they received their pre-service preparation. To date, however, there have not been similar efforts to hold colleges and universities accountable for the in-service professional development they provide to practicing teachers in the form of master's degrees, doctorate degrees, or additional certifications. The National Staff Development Council is in the process of developing new standards for in-service professional development, with input from the major education associations, to be adopted by states to control state quality issues.[32]

Providers of pre-service professional development are not ranked other than by word of mouth with the exception of *U.S. News & World Report's* ranking of graduate schools of education based on surveys of administrators of other similar institutions. These rankings also assess admissions selectivity, graduation and retention rates, faculty resources, and research activity. While many prospective students rely on these rankings as they make choices about which school to attend, many in the established education community find them suspect. Large schools that produce many graduates who remain in higher education have more survey respondents who are familiar with the program, thereby potentially skewing the rankings.

[29] Ramirez, Heidi. "The Shift from Hands-Off: The Federal Role in Supporting and Defining Teacher Quality." In press 2003.
[30] Education Week. (2003). "Quality Counts 2003: If I Can't Learn From You..." *Education Week 17*(22). p. 92
[31] Ibid. Annual Survey of State Departments of Education.
[32] Stephanie Hirsh, National Staff Development Council, 2003.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS

PRE-SERVICE REQUIREMENTS

Throughout any discussion of pre-service professional development for teachers, it is important to understand the terminology involved. Each state decides whether to "license" or "certify" teachers in their state. In the education field, the words mean essentially the same thing—both indicate that an individual has met state requirements to teach in the state's public school systems. A number of educators, however, have tried to make a distinction between certification and licensure that is used in other professional fields such as medicine (NASDTEC, 2002, p. ix). In medicine, states control licensing, but specialized boards, such as the American Board of Internal Medicine, have the authority to certify. States have been unable to reach a consensus on this issue for teachers. Therefore, some states issue licenses to teaching candidates, while other state boards continue to certify. Regardless of the terminology used, all states have adopted basic requirements for becoming a practicing teacher. For ease of reference, this paper will use licensure to refer to the process.

Pre-service training for teachers is driven by state-mandated requirements for licensure. The requirements for licensure vary from state to state, and the distinctions are important for teachers who choose to practice in a public school system, especially if they relocate from the state in which they were initially licensed. Teachers must be licensed to teach in the classroom though they can obtain their license in a variety of ways. The first license issued by any state education agency varies in name from state to state but is often called an "initial", or a "standard" license. Although some states also use the word "provisional" to describe this first license, others offer a different kind of "provisional" license to teachers who do not meet all the licensure criteria. In order to receive a provisional license under the latter definition, a teacher must be in active pursuit of the necessary criteria. These provisional licenses are typically short in duration.

COURSEWORK: Most teachers receive their pre-service training in a university setting by pursuing a bachelor's or master's degree. Some teachers earn a degree in education, while others earn a degree in an academic major and take the additional necessary classes to become licensed. In master's programs in education, students take the courses necessary to become licensed as well as additional courses to meet the master's degree requirements. Master's degree students can earn a master's in teaching or a master's in education. Prospective teachers with a minimum of a bachelor's degree who do not want to pursue an additional degree also have the option of taking only the classes necessary to be licensed in a given state where they want to teach.

Candidates may also have to fulfill requirements for specific subject matter courses, especially if they are seeking licensure at the secondary school level. Requirements differ in part because states issue licenses based on both (1) grade levels and (2) teaching fields, each of which is defined differently in each state. Licenses can range in grade levels from K-6 to K-8 to 9-12 to 6-12 to K-12. States typically license elementary school teachers as generalists qualified to teach all subject areas in those grade levels. In middle and upper grades, teachers are typically licensed in a specific content area—such as math, science, social studies, or English. Some states, however, license middle school teachers as generalists as well. Specialists in areas such as art, music, or English as a Second Language are often licensed to teach grades K-12.

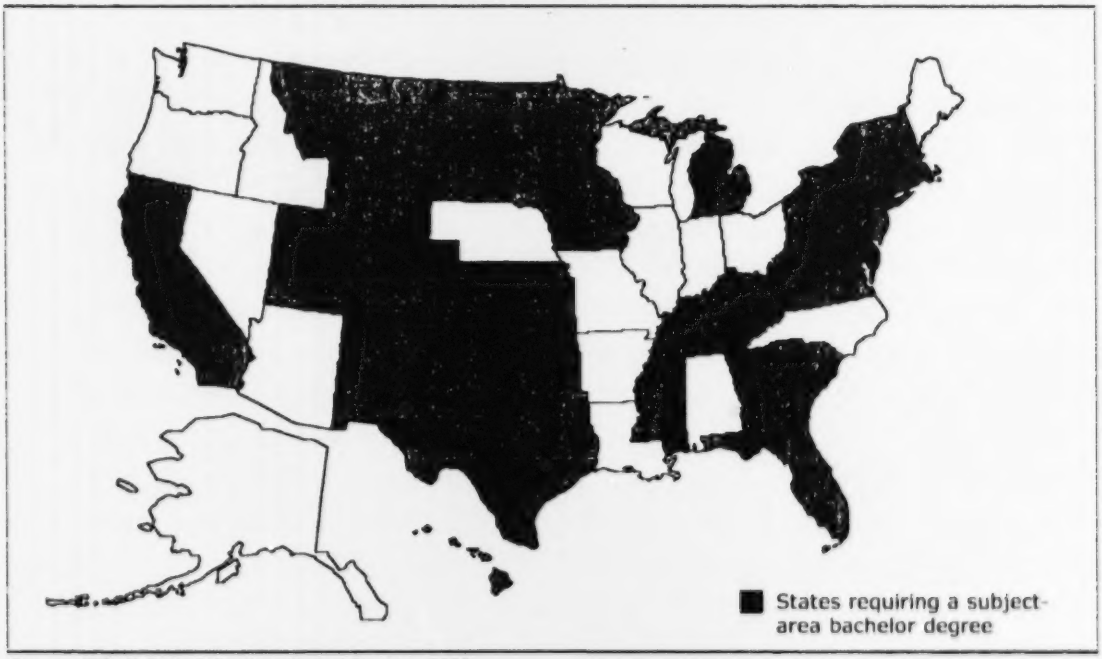
REQUIREMENTS FOR LICENSURE

All 50 states require at least:
- **bachelor's degree.**
- **subject matter coursework.**
- **pedagogical coursework, and**
- **clinical experience.**

A majority of states require:
- **licensure tests on basic skills, pedagogy, or subject-knowledge.**
- **a major in the content area for high school teachers.**

Some states also require coursework in the following areas:
- **nature of student learning process/developmental characteristics.**
- **social foundations of education.**
- **methods of teaching elementary or secondary subjects.**
- **methods of teaching reading, and**
- **cultural diversity.**

STATES REQUIRING A SUBJECT-AREA BACHELOR'S DEGREE FOR CERTIFICATION



Source: Title II Data Collection–States' Reports, 2002.

CLINICAL EXPERIENCE: All states require prospective teachers to have some clinical experience in the classroom through student teaching.[33] In addition, NASDTEC reports that over 70 percent of the states require prospective teachers to spend some time observing classrooms and leading sample lessons prior to student teaching. The breadth and length of these pre-student teaching clinical requirements vary dramatically from state to state. The number of required hours for clinical experience *prior to* student teaching ranges from 40 to 100 hours of observation and assistance.[34]

The student teaching experience itself is meant to allow the candidate to learn how to apply the knowledge he or she has learned through observation and coursework in the classroom setting. In theory, student teaching also provides the state, as the licensing agency, an additional opportunity to assess the performance of the student; but in practice, the state is rarely if ever involved in the process. Generally, the student teaching experience is conducted in a public school under the supervision of a teacher in that school. A faculty member from the student teacher's college or university will evaluate the

CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

Clinical experience consists of:
- **observing classroom activity,**
- **modeling lessons, and**
- **leading instruction.**

Some states also require:
- **clinical experience in a multicultural setting,**
- **videotaping lessons and receiving feedback,**
- **training required for master teachers, and**
- **experience with special education students.**

[33] *NASDTEC* Manual p. B-22.
[34] Ibid

student teacher but is not always involved in supervising on a day-to-day basis. Student teaching requirements vary from 8 to 15 weeks, and a few states allow the program to determine how long the student teaching experience will be.[35]

Student teacher evaluations, in general, are based on a specific set of requirements most often established by the student teacher's college or university and state licensing agency as opposed to a local school district. Accordingly, a college or university faculty member conducts evaluations of the student teacher more often than the supervising teacher or principal even though in many instances the faculty member has not been regularly involved in the student teaching experience. Following an evaluation, the college or university faculty member, alone or in conjunction with a supervising teacher or principal, can then recommend a candidate to the state for an initial teaching license.

Clinical experience in the form of student teaching, while intended to give prospective teachers an understanding of the realities of teaching, is often considered less meaningful than it could be for a number of reasons. The quality and caliber of the teacher under whom student teachers work varies widely as does the training those teachers receive to supervise student teachers. In addition, rather than being mentored by a veteran teacher, in practice student teachers report that they are often forced to learn by trial and error in front of a classroom on their own. The lack of supervision that most student teachers receive during their clinical experience makes the internship less useful to them and makes it difficult for faculty supervisors or teachers under whom students work to accurately measure the student teachers' abilities and progress.

Research has found that student teaching programs "focus on a training process for getting candidates prepared to perform to the specifications of particular evaluation instruments. However, they do little to encourage candidates to teach reflectively, to evaluate what they are doing and assess whether it is working or not working and why, to understand how to make better decisions, and to learn how to juggle the various concerns of teaching."[36] These researchers concluded that the consistent instruction, coordination, and supervision that help student teachers make the transition to being successful first year teachers is not found consistently across programs.

One important development in improving the student teaching experience was the advent of Professional Development Schools (PDSs) in the mid-1980s.[37] PDSs are partnerships between schools of education and school districts that focus specifically on the field experience component of teacher preparation. In a PDS, teacher candidates participate in their student teaching in specific agreed-upon schools within a district, veteran teachers and other school personnel mentor the prospective teachers, and university faculty are regularly involved in the teaching and learning taking place in these public schools. These partnerships have been highly touted by some as providing a variety of benefits: the higher education community and the local school districts take joint responsibility for the preparation of future teachers; both veteran and prospective teachers benefit from the mentoring relationships that develop; and university faculty and practicing teachers have a more regular exchange of information about current educational practice.[38]

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[35] *NASDTEC* Manual p. B-22.

[36] Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A., Klein, S. (1995). *A License to Teach: Building a Profession for 21st Century Schools.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press Inc. p. 129 based on Darling-Hammond, L., Gendler, T., and Wise, A. *The Teaching Internship.* Santa Monica: RAND Corporation. 1990 and Fox, S. M., and Singletary, T.J. "Deductions About Support Induction." *Journal of Teacher Education,* Vol. 37. p. 12-15.

[37] Abdal-Haqq, I. *Locating Resources on Professional Development Schools.* http://www.aacte.org/Eric/eric_digest-95-3.htm.

[38] http://www.state.ct.us/sde/dtl/cert/pds.htm#pds1.

LICENSURE EXAMS: Following the completion of courses at an institution of higher education and clinical experience, over 40 states require exams. These exams vary by state and are generally developed by commercial testing services such as Educational Testing Service (ETS). Researchers clarify that licensure exams should serve two purposes: 1) screening and sorting candidates, and 2) defining the knowledge base for what teachers should know and be able to do.[39] While many of these exams have been criticized as not being particularly rigorous, they do serve the purpose of screening out some candidates who are unable to master basic content knowledge, basic teaching strategies, and administrative procedures. In general, however, little is known about the extent to which these exams "identify candidates with the knowledge and skills necessary to be minimally competent beginning teachers."[40]

Many of the concerns associated with these tests stem from the fact that the education field continues to have an undefined professional knowledge base despite numerous sets of standards set forth by a variety of education organizations for new teachers, accomplished teachers, and schools of education. An overview of pre-service programs across the country demonstrates that although most states equate teacher quality with licensure status in their state, significant differences in requirements and standards for licensure exist among states across the nation. To address this issue and the charges facing schools of education about their lack of accountability, several organizations, including the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), are advocating for the development of a new national exam that would be one part of the assessment process for all prospective teachers.

Further highlighting the lack of a standard body of knowledge that every teacher is required to learn is the challenge faced by a teacher licensed in one state to relocate and teach in another. Even experienced teachers are required to go through a sometimes tedious process to become licensed in another state. To address the teacher mobility issue,

LICENSURE EXAMS

Most states require exams in one or more of the following areas:
- **basic skills,**
- **subject matter,**
- **general knowledge,**
- **knowledge of teaching, and**
- **teaching performance.**

NASDTEC, an organization that provides support to the entity in each state responsible for the preparation, certification, licensure, and continuing professional development of teachers, developed an interstate contract to assist teachers and other educators who are licensed in one state and want to teach in another. At present, 46 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico participate in the contract for one or more of the four educator categories: teachers, support professionals, administrators, and vocational educators. The contract does not ensure that tests or other ancillary requirements will be recognized, but in most cases it reduces the additional requirements which a teacher new to the state must meet.

[39] Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A., Klein, S. *A License to Teach: Building a Profession for 21st Century Schools*. p. 50.
[40] National Research Council. (2001). *Testing Teacher Candidates*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press. p. 14.

ALTERNATIVE ROUTES TO LICENSURE

The creation of alternative licensure programs stems from concerns about the supply of qualified teachers, particularly those who meet NCLB requirements, as well as concerns about the effectiveness of traditional teacher preparation. The National Center for Education Information (NCEI) reports that all but six states employ some form of an alternative program for teacher candidates. These programs, like traditional pre-service training, vary in structure, level of support, and criteria for entry. According to *Education Week's Quality Counts 2003*, some alternative programs are little more than renewable emergency certificates, while other programs are far more comprehensive and structured.

The *Quality Counts* state survey found that 24 states and the District of Columbia have created or regulated alternative programs that provide candidates with both training before they enter a classroom as well as support from a mentor as these candidates begin to teach. However, the pre-service component can vary from a two-week orientation to a full year of training. In addition, only 12 states and the District of Columbia require that a portion of the pre-service training include actual classroom experience.[41]

States also vary in the criteria that candidates must meet prior to enrolling in an alternative program. *Education Week's* survey of the 24 states that employ structured alternative licensure programs found that each of those states, as well as the District of Columbia, require a bachelor's degree for admission. Only 18 states require candidates to pass an entrance test; and, of those, 10 require candidates to pass a subject-knowledge test for admission to the program.[42] Alternative certification programs often target midcareer switchers in addition to retirees from the business and military communities who are interested in becoming teachers.[43]

The *Quality Counts* report points out that of the 24 states and the District of Columbia that have structured alternative programs, 11 states use these programs to place teachers in subjects with shortages to minimize out-of-field teaching—the practice of assigning teachers to classes for which they are not licensed. Out-of-field teaching is in part a result of shortages of licensed teachers in specific areas such as math, science, or special education. Kentucky alone bars out-of-field teaching. Ten additional states either limit the number of out-of-field teachers in a school or district or penalize districts that hire too many out-of-field teachers.

Most teachers in alternative certification programs are granted a temporary or emergency license while they complete the program. These licenses are commonly valid for one or two years and are nonrenewable.[44] Teachers with emergency licenses can be assigned as any other teachers, except that only New York State—by court order—prohibits the practice of hiring teachers with emergency licenses in its lowest-achieving schools.[45]

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[41] *Quality Counts* 2003. p. 58.
[42] Ibid. p. 58.
[43] Ibid. p. 58.
[44] Darling-Hammond, L., Berry, B., and Thoreson, A., (2001). "Does Teacher Certification Matter?" *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 23*(1), pp. 57–77.
[45] *Quality Counts* 2003. pp. 90-91.

States	ALTERNATIVE ROUTES TO TEACHING				
	Alternative route is designed to recruit teachers into:		*Support provided to participants prior to becoming teachers of record:*		Alternative route has a specifically designed mentoring component
	subject-area shortages	high-need schools	length of training	classroom training required	
Alabama					
Alaska					
Arizona					
Arkansas			2 weeks		x
California			120 hours		x
Colorado					
Connecticut	x		8 weeks	x	x
Delaware	x		120 hours	x	x
District of Columbia	x		8 weeks	x	x
Florida			not specified		x
Georgia			140 hours	x	x
Hawaii					
Idaho			9 credits & 30 hours		x
Illinois			not specified	x	x
Indiana			18 credit hours	x	
Iowa					
Kansas					
Kentucky			8 weeks	x	x
Louisiana	x		9 credit hours	x	
Maine					
Maryland			135 hours		
Massachusetts	x	x	5-7 weeks	x	x
Michigan					
Minnesota					
Mississippi			2-3 weeks	x	
Missouri	x	x	2 weeks		x
Montana					
Nebraska					
Nevada					
New Hampshire			not specified		x
New Jersey					
New Mexico					
New York			200 hours	x	x
North Carolina			5 weeks		x
North Dakota					
Ohio					
Oklahoma					
Oregon					
Pennsylvania			2 weeks		
Rhode Island					
South Carolina	x		2 weeks		x
South Dakota					
Tennessee					
Texas	x	x	not specified		x
Utah					
Vermont					
Virginia	x		180 hours	x	
Washington	x		not specified	x	x
West Virginia					
Wisconsin	x		8 weeks		x
Wyoming					
U S	11	3	N.A.	13	19

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Source: Excerpted from *Quality Counts 2003*, pp 66-67.

In contrast, Texas, Massachusetts, and Missouri have structured their alternative licensure programs specifically to place candidates in "high-need" schools.[46]

The growth of alternative certification programs has brought the relevance of licensure to the forefront of the teacher-quality debate. One recent study found that teachers with standard licensure do not appear to be more effective than those who hold emergency credentials, inferring that being licensed may not have an impact on student achievement.[47] This issue is complicated, however, by the range of individuals who hold emergency credentials. A subsequent study found that overall, teachers who are holding temporary or emergency credentials in most states are frequently individuals who are fully qualified to teach but who are entering from another state, therefore possibly explaining why licensed teachers did not seem to be any more effective.[48] Given the range of requirements in various states, it is difficult to make generalizations concerning teacher qualifications or quality based on licensure status alone.

The view that existing state licensure requirements do not ensure that highly qualified individuals become teachers has led to the creation of different alternatives outside of state licensing systems. One alternative model was developed by the American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE). ABCTE was created in 2001 by the Education Leaders Council and the National Council on Teacher Quality, and it receives funding from the federal Department of Education. The organization describes itself as increasing standards while simultaneously reducing barriers to entry into the teaching profession. Prospective teachers may be licensed by ABCTE if they hold a bachelor's degree, pass a teaching knowledge test and a content knowledge test, demonstrate instructional experience, and satisfy a background check. Examples of how the instructional experience requirement can be met include classroom experience as a substitute, training experience in the military or private sector, or online courses provided by ABCTE. The entire process will cost a prospective teacher approximately $500. In order for individuals who complete this process to get a job as a licensed teacher in a state, that state must recognize this type of certification in its state. As of November 2003, Pennsylvania and now Idaho are the only states that recognize ABCTE certification. The tests that ABCTE will be using to license candidates are not yet available, so no teachers have yet been licensed by ABCTE.

Another alternative program that the federal Department of Education has both funded and highlighted as a way for teachers to meet NCLB requirements is the online competency-based Teachers College offered by Western Governors University (WGU).[49] Intending to target individuals who need flexibility in scheduling and pace, this program offers both undergraduate and master's degrees for prospective teachers as well as master's degrees for current teachers. Programs for paraprofessionals, unlicensed teachers, and second-career professionals transitioning to teaching are also available. WGU does not develop its own courses but instead collaborates with colleges, universities, corporations, and training organizations across the nation to make use of distance learning materials. WGU was granted a $10 million five-year federal Department of Education Star Schools grant to help develop and acquire educational programming for pre-service and in-service teacher education programs, and participants are eligible for federal financial aid. In addition to the federal government, the school is funded by foundations and corporate partners.

[46] *Quality Counts* 2003. p. 66.

[47] Goldhaber, D. and Brewer, D. (2000). "Does Teacher Certification Matter? High School Teacher Certification Status and Student Achievement." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 22(2) pp. 129-145.

[48] Darling-Hammond, L., Berry, B., and Thoreson, A. *A License to Teach: Building a Profession for 21st Century Schools*. pp. 57-77.

[49] The Teachers College can be found at www.wgu.edu/tc.

PRE-SERVICE FINANCING

Teacher pre-service professional development is financed primarily by prospective teachers through the tuition they pay. The costs range dramatically depending on whether the individual attends a private or public college or university and whether he or she receives a bachelor's or a master's degree, or takes the courses required for a teaching license apart from a degree program. A limited amount of federal aid is available to prospective teachers in the form of student loans. Under direct payment programs, the federal government provides financial assistance directly to individual beneficiaries who satisfy federal eligibility requirements. The largest programs in this category—including the Federal Pell Grant Program, Federal Perkins Loan Cancellations, Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants, and Federal Work Study Program—provide payments to institutions of higher education for financial assistance to students. These programs therefore help finance the training of those candidates preparing to be teachers.

In addition to federal funds, 24 states offer education assistance, such as college loans and scholarships, to attract candidates to the teaching profession. Of those 24, seven target such assistance toward teachers who are willing to teach in high-poverty, high-minority, or low-performing districts. Along with defraying tuition costs for individual students, some federal and state dollars directly support teacher education programs.

The Improving Teacher Quality State Grants program, or Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, is a federal block grant that states can use, in part, to improve the caliber of pre-service training for teachers. Appendix A lists the full array of federal programs that include resoureces that can potentially be used to finance professsional development for teachers. It is important to note that while the full dollar amount for these programs is listed, only a very limited amount of those funds are actually used by students preparing to be teachers.

Funding sources other than federal dollars, were described in an earlier publication of The Finance Project as follows: "General state funds subsidize teacher education programs in public colleges and universities. However, spending on teacher education programs is lower than that for training programs in most other professions,[50] and some universities have been criticized as treating their education schools as "cash cows," bringing in revenues which are then used to subsidize other schools and programs, including those which train doctors, lawyers, and accountants.[51] Some financing for pre-service training is also provided by local school districts and teachers through the in-kind contributions they make in coordinating and supervising student teachers."[52]

[50] Howard, R. Hitz, R. Baker, L. (2000). "Adequacy and Allocation Within Higher Education: Funding the Work of Education Schools." *Educational Policy* 14(1) pg. 145-160.

[51] National Commission on Teaching & America's Future. (1996). *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*. Washington D.C.: NCTAF pg. 14.

[52] Cohen, C. (2001). *Issues and Challenges in Financing Professional Development in Education*. Washington D.C : The Finance Project. pg.3.

Following an investment in the courses necessary to be licensed, candidates must also pay licensure fees. According to NASDTEC, candidates applying to states that have examination requirements may be charged additional fees for those examinations. In most instances, the examination fees support the development of, revisions to, and the administration of the examinations. Fees are determined by the testing entity and the state licensure office. NASDTEC's report also approximates that half of the state education agencies and/or professional standards boards and commissions are supporting their administrative expenses in whole or in part through the licensure fees collected.[53]

As noted above, the Higher Education Act is expected to be reauthorized by Congress in 2004, and that process may result in significant changes in the financing of pre-service training for teachers. Among the changes being considered is to build on the Act's current $5,000 college loan forgiveness provision to increase it up to $17,500 for every reading, math, science and special education teacher who spends at least five years teaching at a Title I school (those with a poverty rate of over 40 percent).[54]

[53] *NASDTEC Manual* p. C-1, C-6.

[54] *Policymakers* (July 2003). Washington, D.C. Alliance for Excellent Education newsletter.

IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Once teachers are in the classroom, they generally operate independently with little to no supervision. Principals evaluate teachers periodically; but in many schools, within the guidelines of state and district standards and curricula, teachers prepare lessons, deliver instruction, and assess students independently. The structure of preparation programs and the licensure process traditionally presumes that teachers have acquired the necessary content and pedagogy knowledge as well as classroom management skills in their pre-service training. As in other professions, however, there is also a belief in the education field that teachers can benefit from continuing education and training throughout their careers.

The reasons for requiring and participating in professional development are numerous. In addition, districts and/or schools may adopt a specific approach to instruction and therefore require educators to allot time to mastering these approaches. Another reason for in-service professional development, particularly in the form of induction programs, is the commom practice among many districts of assigning their newest teachers to the most difficult schools and classrooms. Some teachers associate more training with greater prestige and choose to attend additional courses and pursue advanced degrees for that reason, and some states and districts offer financial incentives for teachers to get a master's degree or other type of advanced certification. No matter what the reason, virtually all teachers engage in some sort of professional development throughout their careers. Course work is a common requirement for relicensure or a new license in a variety of specialty areas.

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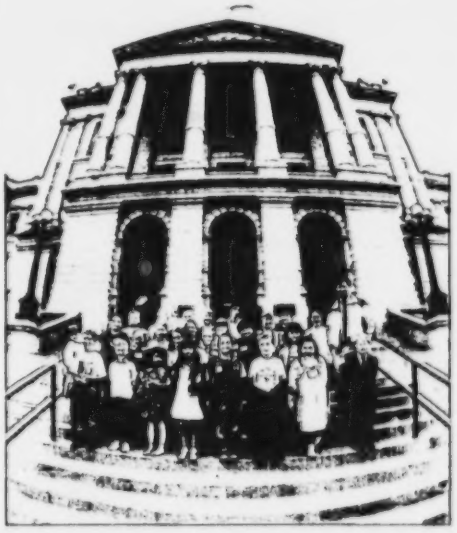
School districts, states, institutions of higher education, professional organizations, and private companies are among the many entities that develop and conduct professional development for teachers, and larger states often provide professional development through regional service centers. Most programs operate individually, although partnerships between and among these entities are becoming more prevalent. The vast number of providers contributes to the difficulty of assessing which are most effective and efficient. For example, district priorities may be represented in the professional development that is encouraged by the district and the school, but teachers may get other information from state-run classes, university-sponsored courses, or outside conferences.

Ensuring or identifying that professional development is effective and efficient presents an ongoing challenge in the education field. In efforts to determine effectiveness, it is important to understand the roles of the various players involved. Those roles are summarized below.

FEDERAL ROLE: Professional development has increasingly been recognized as critical to achieving the nation's education goals. President Bush and Secretary Paige have highlighted the role of professional development—including both pre-service and in-service training—in enhancing the quality of teaching and raising student achievement. President Bush's education blueprint, NCLB, provides guidelines for boosting teacher quality by holding states accountable for ensuring that all children are taught by effective teachers. This includes both the Act's "highly qualified" teacher provisions as well as its "high quality professional development requirements", discussed earlier.

STATE ROLE: States perform a range of activities and functions in in-service professional development. They adopt standards, require school district or individual plans, allocate resources, certify providers, require evaluations, and some provide statewide training programs and academies. In addition, they subsidize institutions of higher education that provide in-service professional development and degrees to teachers.

In its analysis of state professional development requirements, NASDTEC includes only professional development defined as "any coursework, experience, training, or renewal activity required by a state to maintain the validity of a license." As of 2001, only five states did not require professional development under this definition.[55] In the 45 states that do mandate professional development in order to maintain licensure validity, there is great variation in the requirements from state to state.



In the majority of states, the state agency responsible for licensing educators requires the verification of professional development in order to renew a state license, which must be renewed every set number of years. After several years in the classroom, some states require teachers to get a "second-stage" license beyond initial licensure. In other states, a "permanent" license is available after several years. In addition to needing professional development to renew a license or get a second-stage license, some states require professional development to simply maintain the license.[56] States that issue a "permanent" license that does not need to be renewed, still require the local employer to periodically verify that a teacher has met the school district's requirements for professional development. Finally, a few other states issue a "life" license, and all professional development after licensure is then up to either the employer and/or the teacher, with no verification required.[57]

In 29 states and the District of Columbia, teachers must obtain a second-stage license after teaching for a certain number of years. In addition, 12 other states offer but do not require second-stage licensure for teachers who choose to pursue it. Of the states that make such a license available, requirements to achieve the second level of licensure vary in the number of years of experience required, additional college courses needed, and whether assessment occurs at the state or local level. Only seven states require a master's degree for the second-stage certificate.[58]

A number of states have integrated certification by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) into their professional development activities.[59] Thirty-two states have implemented financial incentives for teachers to achieve National Board Certification, other states pay the application fee of applicants and provide other types of support such as release days, while others do not reward or support NBPTS certificates in any way. Some states have also allowed the National Board Certification to be a substitute

[55] *NASDTEC Manual.* p. E-2 The five states that do not have this type of professional development as defined by NASDTEC are Delaware, Hawaii, Nebraska, New Mexico, and New York.

[56] *National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification.* (2002). NASDTEC Manual on the Preparation and Certification of Educational Personnel. Sacramento, CA: School Services of California, Inc. p. D-2.

[57] *NASDTEC Manual.* p. E-4.

[58] *NASDTEC Manual* p. D-2

[59] Stone, J E. *The Value-Added Achievement Gains of NBPTS-Certified Teachers in Tennessee: A Brief Report.*

ROLES IN IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Federal Role:
- Provide guidelines for boosting teacher quality
- Hold states accountable

State Role:
- Adopt standards
- Require district, school, or individual plans
- Allocate resources
- Certify providers
- Require evaluations
- Provide statewide training programs and academics
- Develop state plan

District or School Role:
- Adopt standards
- Develop a district plan
- Train principals and teacher leaders
- Evaluate professional development
- Provide support for teachers
- Deliver professional development
- Manage federal state requirements

Individual Role:
- On-line studies
- Attend conferences
- Participate in curriculum planning
- Work collaboratively
- Pursue National Board Certification

for professional development credits, and both bachelor's degree and master's degree programs at various universities are incorporating National Board standards into the curricula. In addition, some states are recognizing National Board Certification as a valid license for teachers moving from another state, requiring nothing else in order to be licensed in the new state.

In response to critics' argument that there is no evidence that NBPTS has produced significant outcomes in the students of teachers who achieve NBC, researchers continue to study the impact of National Board Certified teachers on achievement. A number of states have implemented induction programs to support new teachers. According to *Education Week*'s *Quality Counts 2003*, 16 states both require and finance induction programs for new teachers. Of those, five states require new teachers to be mentored by experienced teachers for two school years. Five states also have requirements for the amount of time that mentors and teachers spend together, and seven states compensate mentoring teachers for their contributions.

The 2002 NASDTEC study examined "beginning teacher support systems" in contrast to *Education Week*'s study of "induction programs" and found that approximately 26 states have some form of a beginning teacher support system. In these states, the support system includes: training for the support team; in-service programs for beginning teachers; an evaluation of the beginning teacher; and an evaluation of the system itself. Many of the participating states allot additional funding for these programs. While most states require that beginning teachers receive support offered by induction programs, a few are based on voluntary participation, including Alabama, California, Delaware, Georgia, New Mexico, and Texas.[60]

State requirements have typically only specified minimum amounts of professional development hours that must be completed to receive continuing licensure. More recently, however, they have also begun to target the substance of specific professional development needs, such as particular subject areas or grade levels.[61] While some states provide professional

[60] *NASDTEC Manual*, p. K-2.

development opportunities directly and others leave professional development entirely to the districts, a number of states require districts to offer certain types of professional development. For example, in Virginia, the state passed legislation requiring technology training, and the Texas legislature has created a program specific to teaching math.[62] Other states stop short of requiring specific substantive areas and instead offer financial incentives by providing matching funds to districts that conduct certain types of training.

Some states develop professional development plans at the state level in addition to requiring professional development plans from districts. Districts in turn require professional development plans from schools. Often these plans are developed in isolation from one another and therefore fail to maximize the effectiveness of initiatives, sometimes work at cross purposes, and generally create confusion, inviting skepticism among teachers.

DISTRICT ROLE: While some states may require professional development in a few specific subject areas, it is still the responsibility of districts to decide what professional development is most useful to its teaching staff. In addition to providing information to teachers on what the state standards include and how schools will be held accountable, districts also tailor professional development offerings to their particular goals and student and teacher populations. The range of what some highly regarded districts are doing includes adopting standards, developing a district plan, training principals and teacher leaders, allotting time for teachers to collaborate, evaluating professional development, providing support to new teachers through mentoring and district-led induction programs, developing their own professional development materials, and managing federal and state requirements.

At the district level, professional development is designed, selected, and implemented in several different ways. A certain number of professional development days are generally included in the collective bargaining agreement between teacher unions and districts, or are agreed upon in states without collective bargaining. A certain amount of time devoted to planning periods or release time is also included in teacher contracts. This time may or may not be used for professional development, depending on the school and the district. In some districts, professional development is entirely district directed, including developing their own offerings, purchasing district-wide programs, or structuring the use of release time. Other districts maintain a central professional development office that must approve expenditures for professional development throughout the district, including approving conferences and higher education courses, as well as school-level professional development offerings designed to advance district priorities. School boards are generally involved in professional development decision-making only through their role in adopting a district plan and approving large expenditures—for example, the purchase of a district-wide program or adopting a district-wide strategy.

[61] Ward, J., St. John, E.P., Laine, S. (1999). *State Programs for Funding Teacher Professional Development.* North Central Regional Educational Laboratory. pp. 2, 10; Hirsh et al., op. cit., pp. 8, 40.

[62] National Conference of State Legislatures. (2002). *Quality Teaching, Professional Learning and the Legislative Agenda: The State of State Professional Development.* Denver, CO and Washington, D.C.: National Conference of State Legislatures. p. 9.

Districts have structured their incentives for teachers to pursue professional development through higher education in a way that the districts often have little or no input into which master's degrees or additional certification teachers pursue. While certainly many teachers choose programs that are beneficial to them in their work, critics argue that because of this structure teachers are attracted to programs that offer the lowest common denominator since they simply need to fulfill the requirement for the requisite salary raise. Critics further argue that colleges of education have an interest in offering less challenging programs in order to meet that demand and have full enrollment and fees. Further research is needed to determine the reality of the situation.

While they spend significant dollars reimbursing teachers for courses and degrees, districts compensate teachers equally for degrees of differing caliber and do not require the degree to be related to the teacher's subject area. Critics argue that because of this structure teachers are attracted to programs that offer the lowest common denominator since they simply need to fulfill the requirement for the requisite salary raise. Critics further argue that colleges of education have an interest in offering less challenging programs in order to meet that demand and have full enrollment and fees.

SCHOOL ROLE: Some districts move the decision-making process to the school level so that teachers and principals can determine what type of professional development is most helpful for the teachers and students in that building. An example of a large district that operates this way is Chicago, where the majority of professional development dollars and activities are determined by school-level personnel. In some districts, the decisions may be left to the schools by default if the district is not focused on a coherent district strategy for professional development. In other places, schools develop professional development plans, but there is a mixture of district, school, and teacher-selected professional development. As noted above, coordination among these three is often lacking.

INDIVIDUAL ROLE: While teachers are required by states, districts, and/or schools to attend some form of professional development, they often have choices in the particular activities in which they participate. Districts may offer a menu of different professional development opportunities that count for continuing education credits. Teachers can elect to participate in these various opportunities, and often the credits can be applied to state license renewal requirements. Teachers may also choose to attend a conference, participate on a curriculum planning committee, or work collaboratively with other teachers in their school or district.

Another example of individual-directed professional development is the pursuit of National Board Certification, discussed earlier. States and districts often provide incentives by compensating successful professional development teachers, but teachers decide on their own whether to apply. In addition, teachers also choose to participate in professional development that can be applied to a master's degree or other coursework, which often allows teachers to move forward on the salary scale. Problems with the incentive structure are noted above, but individual teachers do not control that arrangement.

Some teachers consider themselves or their peers to be the best judge of effective professional development that improves their capacity; and as a result, they desire an expanded role in determining their own professional development.[63] When districts make decisions about what professional development to provide and require—particularly where the central administration considers district-wide professional development to yield the best results—tension can result from the control that teachers feel they should have over what professional development they participate in, often as expressed through their unions and professional organizations. The San Diego Public Schools provide a well-publicized example of

[63] Renyi, Judith. *Teachers Take Charge of Their Learning:* Transforming Professional Development for Student Success (1996). Washington, DC: National Foundation for the Improvement of Education.

how district professional development can be derailed when teachers and their representatives are not included in decisions about the professional development required by a district.[64] Other districts, however, have successfully implemented centrally directed, district-wide professional development, overcoming tension around who controls the decisions about content, requirements, and delivery.[65]

IN-SERVICE FINANCING

As noted above, virtually all teachers participate in some sort of professional development throughout their careers, and the costs associated with that represent a significant part of district budgets. Determining exactly how much districts spend on financing of professional development is difficult for a number of reasons. There is no uniform definition of what constitutes professional development, and each district includes a different list of activities under that umbrella. While there are sometimes line items in a district budget for professional development, those figures rarely capture the entirety of professional development activities in the district. Some critics have charged that professional development budgets are purposely opaque because they serve as various slush funds. Others respond that if the budget for professional development were transparent, it would be the first thing to go in difficult economic times.

Adding to the complexity, decisions about how much is spent and what activities the money is spent on are made at many different levels. Further, the sources of funds are difficult to identify, as the money spent on professional development by districts is typically included in larger pots of money from the state or federal level. Neither the state nor federal governments nor, with very few exceptions, districts track how much is actually spent on professional development. Much of the professional development that teachers participate in takes place outside of the regular workday, and districts may or may not reimburse teachers for the time and/or money they spend on these activities.

A number of studies have estimated that spending for in-service professional development ranges from less than two percent to more than six percent of district operating budgets. Studies have not been able to more specifically identify a number, primarily because districts vary in what they consider to be under the umbrella of professional development.[66] General estimates of district professional development spending in 1997 and 1998 amounted to 2.82 percent of school district spending nationwide.[67] These are relatively rough estimates, however, because, again, the activities and functions that are considered professional development differ in each district.

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[64] Moran, C. February 5, 2003. "Chief San Diego School Reformer To Leave." Union-Tribune.

[65] Togneri, W. and Anderson, S. (2003). *Beyond Islands of Excellence: What Districts Can Do To Improve Instruction and Achievement in All Schools*. Washington, D.C.: The Learning First Alliance; Snipes, J., Doolittle, F., and Herlihy, C. (2002). *Foundations for Success: Case Studies of How Urban School Systems Improve Student Achievement*. Washington, D.C.: The Council of Great City Schools.

[66] Killeen, K.K., Monk, D.H., and Plecki, M.L., "Spending on Instructional Staff Support Among Big City School Districts: Why Are Urban Districts Spending at Such High Levels?" 2000; Miles, K.H. and Hornbeck, M., "Reinvesting in Teachers: Aligning District Professional Development Spending to Support a Comprehensive School Reform Strategy," New American Schools Strategy Brief, Resource Reallocation, Issue #3, 2000; Elmore, R., "Investing in Teacher Learning: Staff Development and Instructional Improvement in Community School District #2, New York City," Washington, DC: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 1997; Miller, B., Lord, B., and Dorney, J. "Staff Development for Teachers: A Study of Configurations and Costs in Four Districts," Education Development Center, Newton, MA: 1994; Moore, D.R. and Hyde, A.A., "Making Sense of Staff Development: An Analysis of Staff Development Programs and Their Costs in Three Urban School Districts."

[67] Monk, Plecki, and Killeen. *Examining Investments in Teacher Professional Development: A Look at Current Practice and a Proposal for Improving the Research Base. School Finance and Teacher Quality: Exploring the Connections*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education. Designs for Change: Chicago, 1981.

These elements represent significant obstacles in determining the cost-effectiveness of professional development. Recently, a small number of researchers and consultants, including Karen Hawley Miles of Education Resource Management Strategies and Allan Odden of the University of Wisconsin, have assisted several large urban districts in performing a strategic analysis of their spending on professional development, recoding their budgets so that the districts can better understand how much they spend on professional development and how closely their professional development activities are tied to larger district reform goals. After collecting data, these researchers calculated the amounts spent by the districts on professional development. In a study by Miles et. al. of five large urban districts, she determined that they spent between 2.2 percent and 3.7 percent of total operating expenditures, which came to $8.6 million to $123 million.[68] The authors also concluded that of these five districts, "no district actively managed all of these dollars together, and none had a district-level strategy to help focus and integrate professional development spending around improving student performance."[69]

This spending is typically covered by a combination of local, state, and federal funds. Coordination of these funding sources to finance professional development (including ensuring compliance with the requirements accompanying each source of funding) occurs primarily at the district level. Federal funds supplement state and local education funds spent on professional development as well as program fees, foundation grants, and membership dues to professional or union organizations. State funding for in-service professional development typically comes from general state aid provided to school districts. In addition, some states also mandate specific programs and create incentives related to professional development. A report on state professional development policies by the National Conference of State Legislatures found that "44 states provide funding for professional development, with 33 of those states providing professional development funds to all districts in the state."[70] The type of state investments range from financing an additional contract day in New Mexico to requiring that one percent of district and one percent of state expenditures go toward professional development in Missouri, to state incentives for National Board Certified teachers.

While federal funding is only one piece of the funding puzzle, it is an important piece. Federal funding programs reflect national priorities for education, and currently issues of teacher quality and professional development rank high on the national agenda. The federal government invests in numerous programs, administered through several departments and agencies that can be used to support professional development in education. These funding streams vary in terms of size, eligibility, fund distribution, allowable activities, flexibility, and many other variables.

Most of the federal programs providing funding for professional development in education fall into three main types: formula (or block) grants, project (or discretionary) grants, and direct payments to individual students enrolled in higher education programs. Block grants distribute a fixed amount of funding to states or localities based on established formulas that vary from grant to grant, and these programs tend to include relatively large dollar amounts. Often, formulas are connected to population characteristics or demographics—for example, the number of children under a certain age who live at or below a specified income level within the school district. Generally, federal block grants are appropriated to designated

[68] Miles, K. H., (2003). *Rethinking Professional Development Spending to Support School Improvement: Lessons From Comparative Spending Analysis. School Finance and Teacher Quality: Exploring the Connections.* Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education. p. 95.

[69] Ibid p. 87.

[70] National Conference of State Legislatures. p. 7.

[71] A checklist of the FY 01-02 federal budget appropriations for programs with the potential to fund professional development in education—both pre-service and in-service—is included in Appendix A.

state agencies, such as state education agencies, that administer the funds. In education, the state education agencies pass the majority of block grant funding on to other public or private entities, primarily districts, through contracts or interagency agreements.[72]

Discretionary federal grants related to professional development typically support more specific professional development purposes, such as the teaching of reading and writing, bilingual education, special education, technology training, or environmental education and training. Congress annually appropriates an overall fixed level of funding for each discretionary grant program. The grants are then typically awarded by the authorizing agency on the basis of competitive applications. Eligible applicants depend on the particular program but may include states, local education agencies, and nonprofit or private entities.

There are also several discretionary grants that encourage or require collaborative efforts or partnerships, such as those between local school districts and private businesses or local organizations.[73] Some of the discretionary grant programs that support professional development have been consolidated into large state block grants under NCLB, but most individual discretionary programs still remain. Examples of federal discretionary programs with the potential to support professional development include the Comprehensive School Reform Demonstration Grants, Foreign Language Assistance Grants, Magnet School Assistance Grants, and the Teaching American History program. While these smaller programs continue to exist, they provide far fewer available dollars for professional development than the large state block grants, such as Improving Teacher Quality State Grants, created by NCLB and Title I.[74]

As federal funds are combined with state, district, and school levels, they exert an important influence on the professional development activities that actually take place. For example, to support compliance with its baseline requirements, Title II of NCLB mandates that the federal government make grants available to state and local educational agencies that can support licensure reform, professional development, teacher recruitment, and partnerships for improving teacher quality. The funds can also support state or district efforts to help teachers become "highly qualified." Title I of the Act includes provisions that allow states and districts to use the teacher-quality allocation in Title I and Title II to provide increased salaries and professional development for teachers in high-poverty schools.[75]

Just as it is difficult to determine how much is spent on professional development at the local or state level, it is equally difficult to determine exactly how much the federal government spends on professional development. Most federal programs that provide support for professional development support other purposes as well. So it is difficult to determine the precise portion of funding within these programs that actually goes toward professional development.

While states were given greater flexibility under NCLB, the consolidation of programs under the Act creates competition over funds between the goal of providing professional development for educators and the goal of reducing class size. Several programs, such as the Eisenhower Professional Development program and the Class Size Reduction program, have been consolidated into the Title II Improving Teacher Quality State Grants program, giving states more flexibility in how they spend federal funds to support teachers. This shared allocation prevents these funds from being targeted directly for professional development at the federal level. It is left to states and districts—and sometimes schools—to determine whether and how they want to spend funds specifically for professional development, and an accurate reflection of the costs involved is not captured in a single budgetary line item.

[72] Robinson, C. and Neville, K. "Catalog and Guide to Federal Funding Sources for Professional Development in Education." Update 2003.
[73] Ibid.
[74] Ibid.
[75] Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 2001.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

School and district managers play a critical role in the culture of schools, support of teachers, and outcomes for students. For the purposes of examining professional development in education management, this paper will use managers and administrators to refer to principals and superintendents. Managers are selected at the local district level where hiring decisions are guided by local school board policy. Typically, principals are selected from the teaching ranks, and superintendents have experience as school-level administrators. While there has been increasing emphasis recently on the importance of the superintendent's and principal's roles as instructional leaders, realistically principals and superintendents are responsible for much more than instruction. While the size of the workforce and budget that a manager is put in charge of obviously varies drastically from school to school and district to district, all principals and superintendents must manage a workforce, develop and oversee a budget, and manage external relations and a multitude of logistics.

SELECTION ISSUE

One issue often cited as contributing to problems in school and district management is the selection process of potential administrators. Teachers can decide independently to pursue their master's or doctoral degree in educational leadership, which qualifies them for licensure as an administrator. When districts look to hire new principals, the candidates they have to choose from are only those who have chosen to pursue licensure for administration. There is rarely district input on who pursues licensure, and as a result teachers and other individuals who might be best suited to manage schools are not in the pool of applicants. Although in recent years there has been a perceived shortage of qualified administrators, several recent reports indicate that there is no shortage of individuals licensed as administrators.[76] The real issues appear to be the personal qualifications and characteristics of potential administrators and the challenge of finding applicants willing to lead schools that are difficult to staff because of the conditions within the school and its surrounding areas.

Several districts across the country are trying to change this pattern by encouraging potential administrators, assisting them with the necessary coursework to become licensed, and placing them in an internship setting so they are more adequately prepared for the job. The Wallace Foundation is supporting 12 sites in states around the country in its Leadership for Educational Achievement in Districts (LEAD) initiative. The chosen sites are district-state collaborations that are working together to impact both state and local policy. At the state level, the sites are working to reform selection and licensure policies; and at the local level, the collaborators are focused on redefining policies related to recruitment, retention, evaluation, and incentives for administrators. In addition, the states and districts involved in the initiative are working with universities to influence the training and selection of aspiring leaders.

PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

The training that teachers receive to work in the classroom does not teach them the skills necessary to successfully manage a school. Most states, therefore, require administrators to pursue a master's degree or doctorate in educational leadership or educational administration to become licensed for the job. The requirements for advanced degrees in educational leadership vary by institution, with some requiring courses specifically addressing budgeting and human resource skills and others that have no course specifically focused on these skills. Similar to teacher training programs, administrator training programs are coming under increasing attack for not producing administrators with high-quality leadership and management skills. Waivers have been implemented in several states so that principals and superintendents from non-education backgrounds can be hired. While several large urban districts, such as New York City and Los Angeles, have hired high-profile superintendents from non-education backgrounds, this is still a relatively infrequent practice and even more uncommon in the principalship.

[76] Rosa, M., Celio, M.B., Harvey, J. and Wishon, S. (2003). *A Matter of Definition: Is There Truly A Shortage of School Principals?* Center on Reinventing Public Education, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs, University of Washington.

In most but not all states, principals and superintendents must be licensed by the state. Only Michigan and South Dakota do not require principals to be licensed, and seven additional states—Florida, Hawaii, Nevada, North Carolina, Tennessee, Washington, Wyoming, and the District of Columbia—do not require superintendents to be licensed. A recent state policy survey conducted by the National Center on Education Information (NCEI) summarized the state licensure requirements for school administrators. As is the case with teacher licensure, the requirements differ in every state. NCEI found that in states which require licensure, nearly all require administrators to have prior teaching and/or related experience in Pre-K-12 schools. This is particularly true for principals, as they are typically viewed as instructional leaders more than managers. Only Colorado, Georgia, Mississippi, New Jersey, and West Virginia do not require principals to have teaching experience; and Colorado, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Ohio do not require superintendents to have teaching experience.[77] Some states, such as California, are maintaining their licensure requirements for principals, but are radically streamlining the process to make it less burdensome for potential new principals.[78]

The principal and superintendent preparation process is primarily university driven because both principals and superintendents are required by most states to complete a master's or doctoral program. Thirty states require a master's degree for principals, and 33 states require superintendents to participate in a college-based system for licensure.[79] The NCEI survey found that "these programs vary considerably from state to state in requirements for entry, program requirements, length, and exit criteria. Some require internships; others rely solely on coursework. Some require exit tests or assessments; most do not."[80] Schools of education have now begun to face heightened scrutiny for not adequately teaching future school administrators the skills that are necessary for success.

Efforts to improve the selection and preparation of school leaders have taken a variety of formats. Similar to teacher preparation, there has been a movement to set standards for what principals should know and be able to do before they are hired. There are two similar

LINKING SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND UNIVERSITIES

One example of a program that improves the ties between universities and districts is the Bank Street School of Education Principals Institute. This program provides prospective principals working for the New York City Board of Education significant practical experience as a part of their pre-service training program. The cohort of prospective principals completes required coursework and spends one semester working closely with a mentor principal. A team of Bank Street advisors works with both the mentors and the prospective principals to design a tailored plan that meets the needs of the student principal. The principal candidates must be willing and eligible to take a sabbatical or leave of absence during the internship semester.[84]

In another example, the University of Buffalo's Leadership Initiative for Tomorrow's Schools (LIFTS) has also developed a principal training program that allows districts to sponsor potential candidates. The candidates continue current employment and take courses during the first year of the program. In the second year, the district-sponsored candidates are employed as full-time interns for 180 days with a minimum salary of $30,000.[85]

[77] National Center on Education Information. (2003) *School Principal and Superintendent Certification Study*. www.ncei.org.
[78] New Democrats OnLine. "A New Leadership Agenda for America's Schools." August 4, 2003.
[79] National Center on Education Information. (2003).
[80] National Center on Education Information. (2003).
[84] http://www.bankstreet.edu/leadershipcenter/html/principal.html.
[85] http://www.gse.buffalo.edu/DC/EOAP/EA6.htm.

sets of standards for educational leadership. The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), founded by 10 national education organizations, created the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Guidelines for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership. In addition, the Council of Chief State School Officers and member states developed the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), which published another set of standards for administrators.[81] The most recent (2000) version of the ELCC Guidelines incorporates the ISLLC standards.

MOVING AWAY FROM UNIVERSITY-BASED PREPARATION

A new program that has received a great deal of media attention recently is New Leaders for New Schools, with offices in Boston, New York, Chicago, and Washington. This program selects highly qualified individuals from a variety of fields and provides them with a fellowship and living stipend to participate in their leadership training program. Participants must have a minimum of two years of teaching experience, and it can serve as a pathway for former teachers to reenter the education field as leaders. These "New Leaders" participate in an intensive summer institute and are then placed in year-long internships with mentor principals. Once the internship has been completed, the program assists the "New Leaders" in finding placement as school principals and continues to provide support and professional development for the first two years of the job.[86]

The New York City Public School System began its own principals' institute in the summer of 2003. Participants are trained in the summer and then paired with successful principals for one school year before being assigned to schools the following year. The initiative is being sponsored in part by a $30 million donation from the Partnership for New York City.[87] Principals' institutes led by districts have become a growing trend according to the council of Great City Schools, which represents large, urban districts.

Setting standards, however, is only one step in actually improving the pool of candidates. One use of the standards is in the accreditation of education leadership programs at institutions of higher education by NCATE. As is the case with accreditation for teacher preparation programs, the process is paperwork intensive, many programs question the value of the process, and not all programs choose to pursue accreditation. Since the ELCC standards were created by professional associations, some critics also argue that the standards downplay the importance of theory and research in determining what works in school leadership.

While the ISLLC standards were incorporated into the ELCC standards, the ISLLC standards are also used independently by its member states and associations to inform the administrator licensing process. Over 30 states "have adopted the ISLLC standards as their blueprint for rethinking school leadership."[82] These states incorporate the standards to varying degrees in their licensure requirements, professional development, and preparation programs. In addition, ETS has completed the development of an accompanying assessment, which is already in use in many states.[83]

Another means of improving the quality of school administrators that many districts are now pursuing is the improvement of pre-service training. These efforts either (1) work to improve the ties between universities and school districts, or (2) move away from the university-based preparation system to provide training by districts directly. Some districts around the country are actively linking with universities to provide prospective administrators with meaningful paid internships. These relationships can

[81] Council of Chief State School Officers. *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders*. Washington, D.C.: Author. 1996.
[82] Murphy, Joseph. (2003). "How the ISLLC Standards are Reshaping the Principalship." National Association of Elementary School Principals.
[83] http://www.aacte.org/other_professional_issues/standard_activities.htm.
[86] www.nlns.org.
[87] Medina, Jennifer. "City Gets Pledge of $30 Million For a School Principals' Institute." *New York Times*. June 11, 2003. p. B8.

have reciprocal benefits: school districts have a way of training promising administrators, and universities can improve their programs by offering a practical component.

Other initiatives are moving away from university-based preparation and focus almost entirely on requiring future principals to participate in a year-long internship, often with a master principal. Internships can be a costly way of preparing administrators because these interns must be paid a salary in order for the most promising candidates to participate. As a result, many of the initiatives utilizing this training method are supported by private funds. These programs are based on the premise that this hands-on exposure to all facets of the principalship better prepares candidates for the job.

As one of the few training programs specifically targeted at superintendents, the Broad Center for Superintendents provides a preparation program for aspiring superintendents from both the education and non-education sectors. Participants retain their full-time employment and attend seven weekend residential sessions over a ten-month period. In addition to the weekend sessions, participants undertake a series of skill-building activities. Each participant creates a learning plan and works with one of the Center faculty to pursue the plan. They are also matched with two mentors, one a CEO from the private sector and the other an urban superintendent. The Broad Foundation pays for tuition and all program-related expenses. The first class of Broad Fellows completed the program in the fall of 2002. The Broad Center also offers a residency program which began in the fall of 2003. The Residency Program is an intensive two-year management development program that places young leaders from the private and nonprofit sectors into central office managerial positions. The residents attend weekend training sessions and are mentored by the superintendents in the districts in which they are placed. The residents receive an $80,000 base salary plus benefits.[88]

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[88] www.broadcenter.org.

ALTERNATIVE ROUTES TO LICENSURE

Another response to the issue of selection and criticism of administrator preparation programs has been to propose the elimination of barriers to entry into the profession. The advent of alternative routes to licensure for teachers and the belief that the leadership and management skills that school leaders bring to the job are more important than meeting specific licensure requirements have led many states to implement alternative routes to licensure programs for administrators. Eleven states have alternative routes for both principals and superintendents. Four states—Colorado, Georgia, Illinois, and Kansas—have alternative routes for superintendents but not for principals. Hawaii, Maryland, and Tennessee have alternative routes for principals but not superintendents. Most states report that few candidates for administrative positions actually go through any of the alternate route programs, and the preparation process continues to be controlled by colleges and universities.[89]

Taking these efforts one step further, in May 2003, the Broad Foundation and the Thomas B. Fordham Institute published *Better Leaders for America's Schools: A Manifesto*, calling for the virtual elimination of licensure requirements for administrators. The Manifesto also suggests a variety of other changes in school leadership and education, including school district input in the selection of leaders into training programs, selection of leaders based on leadership qualities rather than licensure, improvement of working conditions and salaries for administrators, and searching for school leaders outside the education field.[90]

[89] National Center on Education Information. (2003).

[90] Thomas B. Fordham Foundation & The Broad Foundation. (2003). *Better Leaders for America's Schools: A Manifesto.*

IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In-service professional development for principals and superintendents is often not a priority for school districts, as their attention and resources are focused on developing teachers. Some states require principals and superintendents to take a certain number of semester hours or to participate in continuing education classes to retain their license, but the requirements vary significantly by state. Some states only require experience either as a principal or superintendent to renew a license, but others have specific clock or semester hour requirements. For example, Alaska requires administrators to have six semester hours of credit to renew the license, and the District of Columbia requires 200 clock hours of training and the maintenance of a teaching/service provider license. As is the case with teachers, some states require administrators to get a second-stage license after they have some experience as principals or superintendents. Florida requires a Level Two Certificate for principals, which requires the documentation of successful performance as a principal by the Florida district school superintendent.[91] Other states do not stipulate any professional development requirements for administrators to retain their licenses.

When they do participate in professional development, principals and superintendents receive in-service professional development from a number of different providers. The increasing focus on the importance of strong school leadership has led to some inventive and successful district examples of induction and ongoing support programs for principals.[92] School districts themselves are increasingly offering an in-house orientation and ongoing meetings for new principals—creating principal academies within their own districts—that generally cover the resources available in the district, discipline policy, and other areas. In addition, some districts provide training in budgeting, purchasing, or technology that is specific to the district. Administrators also may continue taking classes at the university or college level, particularly if they are still pursuing their doctorate. Some universities also offer professional development opportunities for principals that are not degree related but offer administrators an opportunity to learn about and discuss timely issues in school management and leadership with their peers.

The state affiliates of professional associations that principals and superintendents may belong to, such as the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), the National Staff Development Council, and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), also provide professional development opportunities, but these may or may not be tied to district-oriented reform efforts. The Council of Great City Schools provides a forum for the superintendents of the largest urban districts in the country to come together and share knowledge and strategies, but they do not offer formal training. Non-district professional development can broaden principal and superintendent knowledge and skills, but it often remains relatively general, as district policies can vary greatly.

While professional development opportunities for principals and superintendents are far fewer than those targeted towards teachers, there is a variety of different initiatives aimed at providing administrators useful professional growth opportunities. The Wallace Foundation

[91] Kaye, E. (2002). The Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, and Administrators. University of Chicago Press. 2002.

[92] Elmore, R. F., & Burney, D. (2000). *Leadership and learning: Principal recruitment, induction and instructional leadership in Community School District #2, New York City*; Fink, E., & Resnick, L. B. (1999). *Developing principals as instructional leaders.*

recently launched an initiative in conjunction with The Center for Public Leadership at Harvard University's Kennedy School of Government to provide a model program designed to help school superintendents be effective in increasingly complex and politicized environments. The superintendents from the 12 districts included in their LEAD initiative, described earlier, will be the first participants.

In addition to its work with prospective principals, Bank Street School of Education also offers several different professional development opportunities for practicing principals. Its Principals Support Program pairs retired principals and educators as advisors to current principals. Each advisor and their group of principals meets monthly and form a network of supportive peers that share problems and solutions and discuss new programs. The advisors also routinely visit each of their principals at their sites to offer counsel on curriculum, management practices, or assessment strategies and to engage in conversation that allows for mutual insight and reflection. In a separate corporate partnership program, Bank Street also offers management training to practicing principals from corporate executives. Principals are paired with both an educational and a corporate advisor who meet monthly as a group to discuss various management issues.[93]

Districts are also undertaking local initiatives aimed at giving principals and other district leaders the tools they need to successfully lead their schools. In the Los Angeles Unified School District, the superintendent has hired consultants to provide training to all principals in data management, so that schools and the district as a whole will have a better understanding of how their dollars are spent, particularly in regard to professional development. They can then use that information to think strategically about making changes to improve.

The financing of principal and superintendent professional development is similar to that of professional development for teachers. Managers finance their own pre-service training, unless sponsored by their district. The same federal and state government dollars identified earlier that support in-service professional development for teachers can be used for in-service managerial training, and are often combined with local and private sources. Both front-line and managerial training in education are therefore competing for the same public dollars.

[93] http://www.bankstreet.edu/leadershipcenter/html/programs.html#principalsupport

CONCLUSION

While school districts, state and federal governments, colleges and universities, private foundations, and individuals invest significant dollars in professional development for educators, there has been limited consideration of the benefits those investments return. As many states and districts face increasing budget shortages, the importance of weighing the costs and benefits of any investment become increasingly important. As a result, interest in the field in understanding how much states, districts, and individuals are spending on professional development and what return they are getting for their investments increases. The issues of effectiveness and costs are central to the debates around performance standards and alternative licensure programs.

As this issue of cost-effectiveness gains attention, the basic questions raised in defining both sides of the equation become: What is effective professional development and how can those effects be measured? How much does effective professional development cost? Development of a tool to measure the cost-effectiveness of professional development faces several challenges. On the cost side, there is currently no uniform way to determine what activities are included in a district's or state's "professional development" and therefore to identify a credible dollar amount of what professional development costs. The

exceptions are the large urban districts that have recently hired researchers to help them determine an answer specifically tailored to them. While incredibly useful to those districts, that process is time and resource intensive and is not available on a broad scale. Further while several states have expressed a desire to understand the costs and benefits of what they spend on professional development, no tool has been developed to meet their needs.

On the effectiveness side, the link from professional development for educators to improvements in student achievement has so far been seen as tenuous at best by many, and few districts currently have the data management capabilities to make that "value added" analysis possible. If states are to comply with NCLB's reporting requirements accurately, however, data systems at both the district and state level may improve. The recent federal grant to the joint efforts of Standard and Poor's and The National Center for Educational Accountibility to help states meet these reporting requirements has the potential to change the ability of districts and states to report their data. Nevertheless, ultimately researchers, the federal government, policy makers and local decision makers will need to consider whether *proof* of a cause and effect relationship is the appropriate standard to hold the field to in identifying effective professional development or whether *evidence* of a positive effect might be sufficient.

Even if evidence were to become the standard, a huge amount of work remains. The recent analyses of district spending on professional development, using tools developed by Karen Hawley Miles, have found that significant dollars are invested in professional development but that the activities and programs funded are not always explicitly linked to district improvement strategies and the money is not actively managed.[94] Not surprisingly, school districts do not necessarily get the results they were hoping for.

This lack of coherence jeopardizes resources being made available for professional development. As Richard Elmore has commented, "school systems that are not spending their own professional development dollars effectively are unlikely to be more effective in spending other people's money. More support for professional development from any level of government is unlikely to improve practice unless schools and districts are already using their own resources effectively."[95] Technical assistance and "user friendly" tools are needed so that districts and states can understand how much they are spending and on which activities, allowing them to think more strategically about how their professional development expenditures can lead to improved student learning.

[94] Hornbeck, M. (2003). "What Your District's Budget is Telling You." *Journal of Staff Development*. National Staff Development Council. 24(3) pp. 28-29.

[95] Elmore, R. (2002). *Bridging the Gap Between Standards and Achievement*. Washington, D.C.: Albert Shanker Institute.

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APPENDIX A

The chart below is excerpted from The Finance Project's *Catalog and Guide to Federal Funding Sources for Professional Development in Education (2003 Update)*, which is an update to a federal funding guide published by The Finance Project in June 2001. The guide identifies a variety of sources of federal funding for professional development—both pre-service and in-service—and is intended as a starting point for policy and program leaders considering how federal funding can contribute to a financing strategy that supports their professional development goals.

It should be noted that direct payment programs, such as federal loan programs, are included in this guide because they can help finance the professional development of those preparing to be teachers. While we include the full dollar amount for these programs, it is important to be aware that only a very limited amount of those funds are actually used by students that are preparing to be teachers.

FEDERAL BUDGET APPROPRIATIONS FOR PROGRAMS WITH THE POTENTIAL TO FUND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION (FY01- FY03)

(in millions of dollars)

CFDA #	Program Name	FY01	FY02	FY03
84.330	Advanced Placement Incentive Program	22.0	22.0	23.4
84.356	Alaska Native Education Equity		24.0	30.8
84.351	Arts in Education	28.0	30.0	33.8
93.113	Biological Response to Environmental Health Hazards	150.1	171.2	179.0*
84.282	Charter Schools	190.0	200.0	198.7
84.004	Civil Rights Training and Advisory Services	7.3	7.3	7.3
84.332	Comprehensive School Reform Demonstration (CSRD)	210.0	235.0	233.5
47.076	Education and Human Resources	873.9	965.0	1,000.0*
84.196	Education for Homeless Children and Youth	35.0	50.0	54.6
84.319	Eisenhower Regional Mathematics and Science Education Consortia	15.0	15.0	14.9
84.365	English Language Acquisition: State Formula Grant Program		665.0	685.5
66.950	Environmental Education and Training Program (EETP; Training Program)	1.6	1.8	N/A
66.951	Environmental Education Grants (EEG)	2.4	2.4	N/A
84.258	Even Start—Indian Tribes and Tribal Organizations	5.0	5.0	5.0*
84.214	Even Start—Migrant Education	8.8	8.8	7.0*
84.213	Even Start—State Educational Agencies	250.0	250.0	248.4
84.268	Federal Direct Loans[1]	1,039.0	-731.3	-433.2
84.032	Federal Family Loan Program (FFEL or FFELP)[1]	3,068.3	3,781.2	5,540.5

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(in millions of dollars)

CFDA #	Program Name	FY01	FY02	FY03
84.063	Federal Pell Grant Program[1]	8756.0	10,314.0	11,364.6
84.037	Federal Perkins Loan Cancellations[1]	60.0	67.5	67.1
84.007	Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants[1]	691.0	725.0	760.0
84.033	Federal Work Study Program[1]	1,011.0	1,011.0	1,004.0
84.293	Foreign Language Assistance	14.0	14.0	16.1
84.256	Freely Associated States—Education Grant Program	5.0	5.0	5.0*
84.215	Fund for the Improvement of Education (FIE)	660.0	832.9	809.4
84.334	GEAR UP (Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs)	295.0	285.0	293.1
84.103	Higher Education—TRIO Staff Training Program (TRIO Staff Training)	6.2	5.8	6.3*
84.367	Improving Teacher Quality State Grants		2,850.0	2,935.0
15.043	Indian Child and Family Education (FACE)	7.1	7.7	9.6*
84.060	Indian Education Grants to Local Educational Agencies	92.8	97.1	96.5
84.168	Indian Education – Professional Development	23.3	23.3	N/A
15.042	Indian School Equalization Program (ISEP)	183.7	186.1	190.7*
84.298	Innovative Education Program Strategies	385.0	385.0	382.5
84.304	International Education Exchange	10.0	11.5	0.0*
84.018	International Overseas: Seminars Abroad, Bilateral Projects	1.7	2.0	2.2*
84.021	International Overseas: Group Projects Abroad	3.5	4.0	4.4*
85.500	James Madison Memorial Fellowship Program (James Madison Foundation)	0.96	1.0	1.0*
84.206	Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Grant Program	7.5	11.3	11.2
84.229	Language Resource Centers	3.2	5.0	4.3*
94.005	Learn and Serve America: Higher Education	9.7	11.8	10.8*
94.004	Learn and Serve America: School and Community Based Programs	30.3	35.5	32.3*
84.069	Leveraging Educational Assistance Partnership (LEAP, formerly SSIG)[1]	55.0	67.0	66.6
84.165	Magnet Schools Assistance	110.0	110.0	109.3
84.011	Migrant Education: Basic State Grant Program		396.0	395.4
43.001	NASA Opportunity for Visionary Academics	6.2	6.2	6.6*
84.257	National Institute for Literacy (NIL)	6.5	6.6	6.5
84.051	National Vocational Education Research (renamed National Centers for Career and Technical Education)	4.5	4.5	4.5

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(in millions of dollars)

CFDA #	Program Name	FY01	FY02	FY03
84.299	National Writing Project	10.0	14.0	16.9
84.362	Education for Native Hawaiian		30.5	30.8
84.342	Preparing Tomorrow's Teachers to Use Technology (Teacher training in technology)	125.0	62.5	62.1
19.419	Professional Development—Teacher Training	0.3	0.3	0.3*
45.025	Promotion of the Arts: Partnership Agreements	27.0	27.5	Not separately identifiable
45.024	Promotion of the Arts—Grants to Organizations and Individuals	35.5	32.2	Not separately identifiable
45.162	Promotion of the Humanities: Education Development and Demonstration	5.3	5.1	5.0*
84.357	Reading First		900.0	993.5
84.302	Regional Technical Support and Prof. Dev. Consortia (Regional Technology in Education Consortia)	10.0	10.0	9.9
93.389	Research Infrastructure (Science Education Program)	14.9	Not separately identifiable	Not separately identifiable
84.184	Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities—National Programs	205.0	264.7	172.2*
84.186	Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities—State Grants	439.3	472.0	469.0
84.027	Special Education—Grants to States	6339.7	7528.5	8,883.1
84.324	Special Education—Innovation to Improve Services and Results for Children with Disabilities	77.4	78.4	77.2
84.325	Special Education--Personnel Preparation to Improve Services and Results for Children with Disabilities	82.0	90.0	92.0
84.323	Special Education—State Program Improvement Grants for Children with Disabilities	49.2	51.7	51.4
84.327	Special Education—Technology and Media Services for Individuals with Disabilities	38.7	37.7	38.0
84.203	Star Schools	59.3	27.5	27.3
84.336	Teacher Quality Enhancement Grants	98.0	90.0	89.4
NONE	Teaching American History	50.0	100.0	99.4
10.574	Team Nutrition Grants (Team Nutrition Training Grants)	4.8	4.0	4.0
84.318	Technology Literacy Challenge Fund Grants (Educational Technology State Formula Grants)	450.0	700.5	696.0
84.243	Tech-Prep Education	106.0	108.0	107.3
84.010	Title I Grants to Local Educational Agencies	8,762.7	10,350.0	11,684.3
84.013	Title I Program for Neglected and Delinquent Children	46.0	48.0	48.7
84.350	Transition to Teaching	31.0	35.0	41.7

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(in millions of dollars)

CFDA #	Program Name	FY01	FY02	FY03
84.066	TRIO — Educational Opportunity Centers	33.2	48.0	46.3*
84.042	TRIO — Student Support services	254.7	259.9	259.9*
84.044	TRIO — Talent Search	110.0	140.8	140.8*
84.047	TRIO — Upward Bound	251.2	264.8	264.8*
NONE	Troops to Teachers	0.0	18.0	28.8
91.001	Unsolicited Grant Program	1.9	2.1	2.2*
84.048	Vocational Education: Basic Grants to States	1,100.0	1,180.0	1,1952.2
84.083	Women's Educational Equity Act Program	3.0	3.0	3.0

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Sources: FY 2001, FY 2002, and FY 2003 President's Budgets of the United States Government and the 2003 Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance.

The figures reported here are actual FY01, FY02, and FY03 appropriations as reported in the FY 2002 and 2003 budgets. Where the programs were not separately reported in the budget, the figures reported are actual FY01, FY02 and estimated FY03 obligations as reported in the Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance.

* Estimated

[1] These figures reflect expenditures for loan programs, as distinct from the face value of the loans (loan volume) or payments.

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